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Monday, 15 March 1948

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INTERNATIONAL MILITARY TRIBUNAL FOR THE FAR EAST Court House of the Tribunal War Ministry Building Tokyo, Japan

The Tribunal met, pursuant to adjournment,

Appearances:

at 0930.

For the Tribunal, all Members sitting, with the exception of: HONORABIE JUSTICE JARANILLA, Member from the Republic of the Philippines, not sitting from 0930 to 1200; HONORABLE JUSTICE HENRI BERNARD, Member from the Republic of France, not sitting from 1500 to 1600.

> For the Prosecution Section, same as before. For the Defense Section, same as before.

(English to Japanese and Japanese to English interpretation was made by the Language Section, IMTFE.) Whalen & Morse

MARSHAL OF THE COURT: The International Military Tribunal for the Far East is now in session.

THE PRESIDENT: All the accused are present except HIRANUMA, HIROTA, MATSUI, SHIGEMITSU, SHIRATORI and UMEZU who are represented by counsel. The Sugamo Prison Surgeon certifies that they are ill and unable to attend the trial today. The certificate will be recorded and filed.

With the Tribunal's permission the accused KAYA will be absent from the courtroom the entire day conferring with his counsel.

Major Blakeney.

MR. BLAKENEY: I resume on page 103, section 42:

THE INTERCEPTED TELEGRAMS.

may well be regarded as the broading tragedy of the Japanese-American war. "Magic", they were called; but if the State Department had the advantage of clairvoyance, it also did not escape the perils and pitfalls attendant upon the practice of the black arts. The Department of State did not know what was in the Embassy's correspondence; it only thought that it knew, for the intercepted telegrams which came to it were, as the evidence here has shown, so garbled,

tendentiously phrased and so ineptly translated as to constitute very different documents from those dispatched by the Japanese Foreign Ministry. The differences in the intercepted messages which fell into the hands of the Department of State in Washington and those actually sent by the Foreign Ministry of Tokyo are of two categories: one, readily demonstrable errors in the intercepts (resulting presumably from poor reception or deciphering) in factual matters; the other, a much less tangible but insidious distortion of the spirit of the original messages. It was by reason of this latter class of errors especially that the defense considered it necessary to present in evidence the originals of a few of the telegrams represented in the prosecution's evidence by the intercepted versions. This undertaking was confined to production of three of such messages, three however of the most vital, they being the ones conveying to Ambassador NOMURA Proposals "A" and "B" and the intention behind them. There is no reason to suppose that these examples are not typical of the entire correspondence. I shall briefly make the comparison between the two versions of each of these three, inviting the Tribunal to form its conclusion, as a result of the investigation, of the effect which such a condition

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may not unreasonably be supposed to have had on the Japanese-Imerican negotiations.

43. Con: idering these three messages chrondlogically, the first is Foreign Minister TOGO's telegram No. 725 of 4 November, advising Ambassador NOMURA of the enticipated approval by the Imperial Conference of the following day of Proposals "A" and "H", and explaining the intention with which the TOJO Cabinet had determined to continue the Japanese-American negotiations. There is no factual error of consequence in the intercepted version, nor is it easy to point out a specific word or phrase which has been given a false meaning; it is the whole spirit which is wrong. One example may be mentioned. The intercepted version 14tates that the Japanese Government "have decided, as 16 result of these deliberations, to gamble once more 17r the continuance of the parleys." As against this 18 norty language -- known as it is to be incorrect, The prosecution love to quote it still 29 riginal has "the Imperial Government continues the negotictions after thorough deliberations." suggested that a reading of the two documents in parallel will expose the dichotomy of the flemboyant, 24 Fx. 1164 (Tr. 10,319). Summation, §G-117 (Tr. 39,656). Exhibit 2924 (Tr. 25,960). 242.

reckless gembler whose message Messrs. Hull and Ballantine 1 read, and the sober, responsible statesman gravely 2 communicating with his ambassador. 44. The next in this series of exhibits, the Foreign Ministers No. 726 of the same day, transmitting Proposal "A" and explanation of it, illustrates our point most vividly. Let me put a few excerpts from original and intercept in parallel columns to show the grotesque distortion of the entire feeling of the message: 10 246 245 Intercept Original 11 "This proposal is our re-This is our proposal setting vised ultimatum. forth what are virtually our 13 final concessions "We have toned down our "We make the following re-15 insistence as follows. 16 lexation "(Note: Should the American "(Note) In case the United 17 authorities question you 18 States inquires into the in regard to 'the suitable length of the necessary durperiod', answer veguely ation, reply is to be made 21 that such a period should to the effect that the ap-22 encompess 25 years.) proximate goal is 25 years. 23 24 245. Ex. 2925 (Tr. 25,964). 246. Ex. 1165 (Tr. 10,324). 25

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"In view of the strong
American opposition to the
stationing for an indefinite
period, it is proposed to
dismiss her suspicion by
defining the area and duration of the stationing

"you are directed to abide
at this moment, by the abstract term 'necessary duration', and to make efforts to impress the United
States with the fact that
the troops are not to be
stationed either permanently or for an indefinite
period."

"In view of the fact that the United States is so much opposed to our stationing soldiers in undefined areas, our purpose is to shift the regions of occupation and our officials, thus attempting to dispel their suspicions. "we have hitherto couched our answers in vague terms. I want you in as indecisive yet as pleasant language as possible to euphemize and try to inpart to them to the effect that unlimited occupation does not mean perpetual occupation."

These are matters which bear, chiefly, on the American impression of Japanese bad faith which so largely motivated the State Department, according to Mr. Ballantine. Does it perhaps put a different aspect on the matter that what the Americans knew as Japan's "revised ultimatum" was but a "proposal", and that only

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"virtually final"? That what to Mr. Ballantine appeared a maneuver to allay American suspicions -- "shifting the regions of occupation and officials," whatever that may be -- was the straightforward purpose to define those things -- area and duration -- the indefiniteness of which had long aroused American opposition? Suspicions well enough grounded, if such a message as this had in actuality been sent by the Foreign Ministry! Is there a difference between allaying suspicion by employing forms of words, shifting claims; and dismissing suspicion by giving the commitment long demanded by the other party? What of euphemizing, trying to "import" in as indecisive yet pleasant language as possible "to the effect that. . . "; is it the same as to abide by an abstract but specifically directed term, and to "impress" the United States "with the fact that. . . "? The importance of this question? It was knowledge of this telegram -- knowledge of the intercepted version of it, as exemplified in the excerpts in the right-hand column above -- which vitiated the belief of the Department of State in Japanese sincerity; "Naturally," said Mr. Ballantine, "we were on our guard from that point on." This telegram having been such a crucial point 247. Tr. 10,937.

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in forming the State Department's attitude in the negotiations, let us consider also some of the errors of the other type, errors of actual fact, in it. We have seen some, already; the last two examples above relate to most important facts, the points on which the negotiations turned. Here are others:

"With regard to the principle of non-discrimination in trade, our contention hitherto made on the consider non-discriminabasis of geographical propinquity is withdrawn

"Of course, there is the question of geographical proximity when we come to tion in commerce.

"the statement in (the Unit- "In a memorandum of the ed States') memorandum of 2 October to the effect that 'it would be undesirable if eith r the United States or Japan were to pursue one course of policy in certain areas while at the same time pursuing an opposite course in other creas.'

American Government, they state in effect, however, that it might be feasible for either country within a certain specified area to adopt a given policy and for the other party within another specified eres to adopt a complementary policy."

Especially note this one:

principles, every effort
is to be made to avoid including them in the terms
of a formal agreement between Japan and the United
States (whether in the form
of agreement or other declarátion)

"(4) As a matter of principle, we are anxious to avoid having this inserted in the draft of the formal proposal reached between Japan and the United States (whether it is called an understanding proposal or some other sort of a statement)"

course it was convinced of the insincerity of the 1 Japanese from reading such messages as these -- anyone would be. It reads like duplicity incornate. But this was not the message sent by the Japanese Foreign Ministry. Finally, for utter distortion in the ultimate degree, Section (2) on the Tripartite Pact: "It should be further clar- "At the same time that you ified that Japan has no intention of making any unworranted extension of the interpretation of the make clear, as has been right of self-defense. With repeatedly explained in the regard to the interprete- past, that we desire to tion and application of the avoid the expansion of Eu-Tripartite Pact, it should rope's war into the be stated that the Japanese Government, as has been repertedly explained in the past, will act in accordance with its own decision, and that it is believed that the understanding of the American Government has already been obtained on this point.

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clarify to them that we intend no expansion of our sphere of self-defense, Pacific."

Once more the suggestion is made, that a reading of the original message discloses no ground whatsoever for the suspicion of insincerity.

45. Last of the three telegrams available for comparison is No. 735, of 5 November, from Foreign Minister TOGO to Ambassador NOMURA. There is in the two versions of this message only one difference worth calling attention to, but that one is of considerable importance in view of the prosecution's assertions of the final nature of Proposals "A" and "B".

Original Intercept 249

"It is our intention to pre- "If it becomes apparent sent Proposal "B" . . . as that an agreement cannot the last resort to save the be reached, we intend to situation in case Proposal submit our absolutely final fails to conclude the nal proposal, Proposal B" negotiations.

Proposal "B", as we shall see later, was an attempt at a <u>modus vivendi</u>, and as such properly and accurately described as a "last resort to save the situation" if negotiations for a substantive agreement seemed for the moment to have broken down. It is in this sense of a last-resort effort that Proposal "B" is described in the succeeding paragraph of the telegram

248. Lx. 2,296 (Tr. 25,971) 249. Ex. 1,170 (Tr. 10,343)

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es "the final proposal". This, it is submitted, is a different matter from an "absolutely tinal proposal" in the prosecution's sense of an ultimatum.

Assuredly, no foreign office could place any trust in a Government believed to have sent to its diplomatic representatives such messages as these intercepts; Mr. Ballantine, in saying that, naturally, the State Department had to be on guard, is guilty only of understatement (which the State Department's attitude toward the negotiations shows us that it was). Certainly, if an ambassador came to us saying that in ew of our country's strong objection to his country's stationing its troops indefinitely in another's territory, the area and duration of the stationing were therefore to be defined; but at the same time we knew that secretly his Government intended, while he answered us vaguely, euphemizing pleasantly but indecisively, to undertake some maneuver of marching troops up the nill and marching them back down agein, why wast breath to ask for the details? If the Ambassador said that in view of our recent memorandum his Government would withdraw its c?. .. s based on geographical propinquity, while however his Foreign Minister had told him that our memorandum could and would be interpreted in a sense opposite to its meaning, and the claims

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thereby justified, might we not well question whether some ulterior meaning lay concealed in the words of his proposal? And if he came offering to make an agreement with us on specified points, but we knew the while that he was directed to make every effort to avoid entering into a commitment of the agreement to writing, could we retain much belief in the Ambassador's protestations of sincerity, his or his Government's? Being in possession of these messages, we should naturally, as Mr. Ballantine said, have to 250 "take them into consideration". It would be foolish to pretend that we could do otherwise.

250. Tr. 10,923.

46. This knowledge, or half-knowledge, of the contents of the Japanese diplomatic communications was acquired, the prosecution say, "by the watchfulness, sagacity and hard work of the intelligence service of the United States." Perhaps one may wonder wnether it was, after all, sagacity; whether it was not perhaps better described, in the Oriental phras, as "monkey-wisdom", the cunning that defeats s it sagacity, which in the discarding unheeded of every proposal, every promise of an undertaking, never allows to the other party the chance to put his sincerity to the proof? How shall it be said that Japan was insincere in her proposed commitments, when they were never tested? Just what part this knowledge sagaciously gained played in the American decisions, to what extent it governed the spirit in which she approached the Japanese-American negotiations, it is not possible to know. But we can draw some significant conclusions from the evidence in this case. America's ambassador in Tokyo, Mr. Grew, was kept fully informed concerning the negotiations, and in a collateral way participated in them. Mr. Grew, of cc rse, was not intercepting any telegrams; hence he had no clairvoyant sagacity, but only that with which (251. Summation, BG-152, T. 39700)

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his ability, experience and judgment equipped him. As we shall have seen before we quit this subject, Ambassador Grew on more than one occasion urged upon his government -- at least once enthusiastically -- the wisdom of giving Japan an opportunity to prove whether her professed desire to establish a reorientation was The Department of State did not accept sincere. his advice, nor apparently did the British Government urge it to do so, in reliance upon the advice of its own ambassador, Sir Robert Craigie, in accord with Mr. Grew's.

Or consider a specific case in which re can almost see the influence of the intercepted correspondence at work. When Ambassador NOMURA presented Proposal "A", it will be remembered, Secretary Hull had approved the clause concerning non-discriminatory trade. That was on 7 November. Normally the intercepted telegrams were received in the State Department within a day or two of translation, and the explanation of Foreign Minister TOGO to Ambassador NOMURA of Proposal "A" had been translated on the 4th; but from (252. Exs. 2836, T. 25368, 2896, T. 25805; testimony of Ballantine, T. 10888) (252a. Ex. 2908, T. 25847) Supra, \$26 Testimony of Ballantine, T. 10951)

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his reaction on the 7th the Secretary had apparently not yet seen this one. A few days later, and he was raising objections and suggesting the withdrawal of that part of the Japanese proposal which went beyond the earlier American position. Can there be any doubt that in the interim he had learned that, as it appeared to him, Foreign Minister TOGO had stated that the question of geographical propinquity had still to be considered, despite the language of Proposal "A", and that Japan was going to pretend that Secretary Hull's words in his oral statement of 2 October that it would be undesirable if either government "were to pursue one course or policy in certain areas while at the same time pursuing an opposite course or policy in other areas" could be construed to mean that "it might be feasible" for one country to adopt a given policy within a certain area while the other adopted a "complementary" policy in another area? How different might not have been the course of history had Japan been given, as Ambassador Grew urged, an opportunity to "implement" her proffered commitments!

THE INDO-CHINA QUESTION

47. Questions arising out of Japan's movement into southern French Indo-China in July 1941 (255. Supra, \$26)

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provided from that time a fourth question of major interest in the Japanese-American negotiations. This Indo-China issue may, indeed, be regarded as one of paramount importance in that it ruptured the negotiations for a time, induced American suspicion of subsequent Japanese professions of peaceful intent, and contributed to the American decision to rupture economic relations, a step which as the Tribunal has seen from the evidence at least hastened the coming of war.

When the Japanese-American negotiations opened Japanese troops were already stationed in the northern areas of French Indo-China, under a greement entered into in September 1940 with the Government of France. The Indo-China question seems, however, not to have come up (unless in connection with equality of access to resources) in the Washington negotiations until almost a year later, when the further Japanese advance into the southern part of the colony was made under the agreement with France for joint defense. With the reasons for this move and the details of its accomplishment we are not especially concerned here; of the reasons assigned -- that it was a precautionary measure against such an encirclement of Indo-China

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Testimony of Ballantine, T. 10862) (256.

Ex. 620, T. 6829) Ex. 651, T. 7079)

as would menace Japan's economic existence, and a measure for prosecution of the China Affair -- the latter seems perhaps to have been the chief, for it was more emphasized in the conversations (and also had accounted for the original stationing of troops in Indo-China, in 1940). Our concern, however, is with the effect of the move on Japanese-American relations and the negotiations.

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The French and Japanese Governments had reached an agreement about 20 July 1941 for the occupation of certain bases in southern Indo-China. 5 July rumors of such a move had been afloat; on that day the State Department had called in Ambassador NOMURA and pointed out the harmful effect upon the negotiations then in progress of such a move. agreement with France was nevertheless executed, and, "feeling keenly the strained situation", Ambassador NOMURA obtained an interview with President Roosevelt on the 24th, at which time the President warned him that if the move into southern Indo-China was carried through, it would probably be unavoidable for him to impose an oil embargo on Japan. The President

(259. Exs. 2883, T. 25753, and 2891, T. 25784) (260. Ex. 647-A, T. 7058) (261. Memorandum, Ex. 2879, T. 25731) (262. Memorandum, Ex. 2882, T. 25750)

continued with the suggestion that it might be possible to withdraw the Japanese troops then stationed in Indo-China if the area could be neutralized by agreement and its resources made freely and equitably available. The final protocol for joint Franco-Japanese defense of Inco-China was executed and Japanese troops moved in only on 29 July; on the 26th, however, as a professed counter-measure to encution of the agreement of the 20th, President Roosevelt by executive order froze all Japanese assets in the United States (Britain and the Netherlands followed suit). The President had told Ambassador NOMURA, at the meeting of the 24th, that he had been able theretofore to resist on the ground of maintaining the peace of the Pacific, the strong public sentiment for embargo on the export of petroleum to Japan but that the move into southern Indo-China would deprive him of his justification. In view of this, it is interesting to note that on 2 July, more than three weeks earlier, and three days before the State Department had heard the rumors of the Indo-China move, the Japanese Embassy had already "recently" heard rumors that the freezing of assets was under contemplation, or had been decided on, by the State Department.

(263. Testimony of Ballantine, T. 10762) (264. Memorandum, Ex. 2280, T. 25739)

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As a consequence of the Indo-China move and the rupture of economic relations by the American freezing order of 26 July, negotiations languished for some weeks. The United States, feeling that Japan's action in making the southward advance was menacing, and was inconsistent with her professed purpose of working for a comprehensive peaceful settlement of Pacific problems, had on the 23d (through the Acting Secretary of State) advised Japan that she could see ne basis for pursuing further the conversations which had been in progress. However, the receipt by Ambassador NOMURA on 6 August of a new Japanese suggestion, in the form of an answer to the President's proposal of 24 July of neutralization of Indo-China, gave him the opportunity to make another approach, which he accordingly did, presenting the proposal to Secretary Hull on the same day. It amounted to a rejection of the President's suggestion, comprehending instead mutual undertakings of cooperation for the obtaining of the resources required by the two nations; and a Japanese undertaking of no further stationing of troops in the Southwestern Pacific except Indo-China, whence the troops already dispatched would be withdrawn upon (265. Testimony of Ballantine, T. 10760) (266. Telegram, NOMURA to TOYODA, Ex. 2886, T. 25765)

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the settlement of the China Incident, to be balanced by an American undertaking to suspend military measures in the South Pacific and to advise the British and Netherlands Governments to do the same. The United States was to "recognize a special status of Japan in French Indo-China ever after the withdrawal of the Japanese troops from that area." Mr. Hull, the Ambassador reported, promised to give an answer after full study, but seemed little interested.

(267. Ex. 2885, T. 25760)

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The negotiations continued to lag, until on 17 August Ambassador NOMURA had a meeting with President Roosevelt, upon the latter's return from his meeting at see with Prime Minister Churchill, at which time the President conditionally approved the resumption of negotiatic s. The Ambassador had made the new suggestion that a meeting be arranged between the President and the Premier of Japan, "to make an exchange of views with an eye to the general peace of the world." The President, according to the Ambassador's report, discussed various aspects of such a meeting with much apparent interest; but of course gave no answer at that time. He did hand to the Ambassador two oral statements: one was a serious warning to Japan that America would be compelled to take all steps which it might regard as necessary "if the Japanese Government takes. any further steps in pursuance of a policy or program of military comination by force or threat of force of neighboring countries." The other document was in reference to the proposed meeting of the heads of state. It said that

"In case the Japanese Government feels that Japan desires and is in position to suspend its 268. Telegram Srop NOMURA to TOYODA, ex. 2888 (Tr. at 25,778).
269. Ex. 2890 (Tr. at 25,783).

expansionist activities, to readjust its position, and to embark upon a peaceful program for the Pacific along the lines of the program and principles to which the United States is committed, the Government of the United States would be prepared to consider resumption of the informal exploratory discussions which were interrupted in July and would be glad to endeavor to

However, the Japanese Government should "furnish a clearer statement than has yet been furnished as to its present attitude and plans."

arrange a suitable time and place to exchange views."

The proposed meeting of President and Premier proved the topic for a considerable amount of discussion subsequently, but for the time being we need not deal with the matter. Meanwhile, the suggestion made by President Roosevelt on the 17th brought a Japanese reply, which was delivered to the President at a meeting of 28 August in the form of a statement later referred to as "assurances." This contained a variety of general statements of Japan's intentions, including explanation of the reason for Japanese measures in Indo-China in much the same terms as those theretofore given on various occasions.

270. Ex. 2889 (Tr. at 25,781). 271. Ex. 1245-B (Tr. 10,764).

On 6 September was delivered the Japanese
counterproposal designed to reopen the negotiations.
The clause relative to Indo-China provided

"that Japan will not make any military advancement from French Indo-China against any of its adjoining areas, and likewise will not, without any justifieble reason, resort to military action against any
regions lying south of Japan."

This, it will be remembered, was the proposal which had been handed to Ambassador Grew beforehand, and on which he had sent to the State Department his 273 opinion. Of the clause in the proposal relating to Indo-China, as of those concerned with China and with the Tripartite-Pact question, Ambassador Grew felt that "the commitments contained in the latest Japanese proposal, if implemented, would fulfill" the basic requirements of a satisfactory solution of the Pacific problems. Mr. Hull, however, as will be recalled, felt that the proposal as a whole had "narrowed down 274 the spirit and scope of the proposed understanding."

49. The proposal by Japan of 25 September introduced a new idea into the negotiations over the Indo-China question, one carried over into proposal "Λ" 272. Ex. 1245-D (Tr. at 10,779).

273. Supra, §33. 274. Nemorencum, Ex. 2898 (Tr. at 25,815).

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"The Government of Japan will not make any armed advancement, using French Indo-China as a base, to any adjacent area thereof (excluding China), and upon the establishment of an equitable peace in the Pacific area, will withdraw its troops which are now stationed in French Indo-China."

The new thing in this proposal is the provision for withdrawal upon (onclusion of "an equitable peace" in the Pacific area (new in a formal proposal for agreement; it had first appeared in the "assurances" of 28 August). Mr. Ballantine says that "that additional clause, added nothing to the situation. would have been the same whether that clause had been added or not"; the prosecution dismiss it as involving "no concession, because Japan was already committed to France under their agreement to this proposal." Before dealing with these arguments, let us just see to the extent that it is not self-evident, the meaning of this "equitable peace" as it is used here. The explanation had been given on 28 August, in a telegram of explanation to /mbassador NOMURA of Ex. 1245-E (Tr. at 10,790).

276. ir. 10,933.
277. Summation, SG-120 (Tr. 39,661). It might be noted that the author of this passage in the summation was discussing this clause in proposal "A" of 7 November.

the "assurances." "It is implied in the phrase when an equitable peace has been established in the Far East," he wrote, "that the withdrawal of Japanese troops can be considered even while the China Affair is not yet brought to a general settlement, if the Chiang Kai-shek regime descends literally to a local government owing to the closing of the supply routes, normal relations between Japan and China are in effect restored, and equitable and free acquisition of resources from French Indo-China is assured to Japan."

Japan, then, had come to the point of villingness to abancon the contention which had been made ever
since the advance into southern Indo-China, that the
troops must be stationed there to see the China (ffair
through. Taking this clause in conjunction with item 6
of the "basic terms of peace with China" annexed to
the 25 September proposal, calling for fusion of the
Chiang Kai-shek and Wang Ching-wei governments,
there seems to be some relaxation of that insistence.

To deal, however, with Mr. Ballantine's and the prosecution's arguments that this clause contains nothing new. A passage from the cross-examination of Ballantine will make his, and the defense's, positions 278. Ex. 2920 (Tr. at 25,944). 279. Ex. 1245-F (Tr. at 10,794).

quite clear.

"Q . . . I will ask you this, whether the 25 September proposal by the Japanese did not contain the new offer, now first made, to withdraw all troops . . . from Indo-China upon either the settlement of the China Affair or the establishment of an equitable peace in the Pacific?

"A The new point there was an equitable peace in the Far East. I don't think that adds anything whatsoever to the other thing, because you could't have an equitable peace in the Far East without a settlement of the China Affair. Also, the term "equitable" -- who is to decide which is to be equitable? It was (clear by) implication that that was to be unilaterally determined by Japan."

To interrupt a moment. How is this clear?

No such thing is suggested. Of course, Mr. Ballantine has dogmatically made his unilateral interpretation, in the second sentence of his answer -- it cannot be equitable without settlement of the China Affair.

Dogmatically, but -- as he would have noted had he read the documents in the negotiations -- incorrectly.

"Q Was it not understood by the Department of 280. Tr. 10,931-32.

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State that the conclusion of this agreement which was then under discussion would be considered by the Japanese to be an equitable peace in the Pacific?

"A We hadn't reached any meeting of minds at all on the fundamental principles which were to govern the peace in the Far East.

"Q I understand that perfectly. But my question is not that. Was it not the clear understanding throughout these conversations, on both sides, that if the conversations eventuated in an agreement, that agreement would constitute the consummation of the equitable peace in the Pacific?

"A Of course, that is true, but that phrase, that additional clause, added nothing to the situation. It would have been the same whether that clause had 281. been added or not."

Did not the witness know that a term of every proposal for agreement, without exception, had been that through the good offices or the "introduction," or by request to Chungking, of the United States negotiations for peace between Japan and China were to ensue upon the conclusion of the agreement? The agreement will, when executed, start off peace negotiations; such an agreement will, "of course," constitute "an 281. Tr. 10,932-33.

equitable peace" -- with the China Affair still unsettled, despite Ballantine's "it couldn't be."
"Upon settlement of the China Affair" and "Upon establishment of an equitable peace, which includes the initiation of negotiations for settlement of the China Affair" are not, pace Mr. Ballantine, synonymous.

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As for the prosecution argument that, Japan being already committed to France, the agreement to withdraw troops upon conclusion of the China Affair or conclusion of an equitable peace in the Pacific area does not amount to a concession, there are several answers. We might remind learned counsel that in the common law it is not unfamiliar doctrine that the promise to one to do that which one is bound to another to do my be such consideration as will sustain an enforcible contract. In any event, the promise to do something other than what one is bound to do raises no such question; and that is the condition here. The evidence concerning the terms upon which the Japanese troops were stationed in Indo-China is far from clear in the record here; but so far as appears there is in all of it no obligation undertaken by Japan to France to withdraw the troops dispatched to Indo-China upon settlement of the China Affair, or upon establishment of an equitable peace in the Pacific, or

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upon other terms specified. Until the demonstration is made of what Japan was bound to France to do, the value of her offer to America to withdraw upon specific contingencies is unimpaired as consideration or quid pro quo for the counterundertakings.

50. Negotiations went desultorily on, with no notable progress, into November. Proposal "A" had only one difference in the Indo-Caina section from the 25 September draft -- the provise that "The Japanese Government undertakes to guarantee the territorial soversignty of French Indo-China." Although this language may not be without a certain significance -a "guarantee" is offered, where before had been assurances -- we need not be concerned to dwell on it. For the next development in the Indo-China matter was to be revolutionary. This was its treatment in proposal "B", and it is therefore deferred until we come to analyze that document.

SUPPARY: THE NEGOTIATIONS TO PRESENTATION OF PROPOSAL "B."

51. Our analysis of the evidence having now reached the point where efforts directed toward a definitive settlement were suspended, it may be helpful if before considering the further discussions over a modus vivendi we attempt to summarize the conclusions which can be drawn from negotiations from April through proposel "A."

The prosecution wish to consider that the Japanese-American negotiations commenced with the appointment of Admiral NOMURA as Ambassador to Washington (which was in November 1940). At any rate, in February -- on the same day that the Ambassador was for the first time being urged by President Roosevelt to undertake negotiations -- Foreign Minister MATSUOKA sent him instructions in which he was reminded that his function was to gain American understanding for Japan, ending with the statement that to those who understood her Japan would make even illogical concessions. And when the negotiations eventually got under way, even in the days of the KONOE Cabinet there were various concessions made by Japan.

52. The changes in Japan's position on the three chief issues of the negotiations were, while the KONOE Cabinet remained in office, briefly as follows. In the matter of interpretation of the Tripartite-Pact obligation in relation to the American interpretation of the right of self-defense, Japan had receded from her original stand that her obligations would be Summation, §G-58 (Tr. 39,586). Ex. 1045 (Tr. 9804).

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applied "in accordance with the stipulation of article 3" of the pact to the point of giving assurance that should America participate in the European war Japan would "decide entirely independently in the matter of interpretation" of her obligation. Japan had also agreed to insertion in any agreement of a provision that "both governments will be guided in their conduct by considerations of protection and self-defense."

Mr. Hull had shown sufficient approval of this step to encourage Ambassador NOMURA to report, and the authorities in Tokyo to believe, that agreement in principle had been reached on the Tripartite-Pact question.

The question of economic activities had once been completely settled, by Japanese concession of the American position, though later the positions of the parties moved apart again. The only real question here was whether the agreement for non-discriminatory international commercial relations was to be restricted to the "southwest Pacific area" of the original Japanese draft of May, or to the "Pacific area" as demanded by the United States. Japan made the concession, and by 21 June the identical language stood in the parties' drafts on this head. Later, however -- with presentation of the Japanese proposals of 6 September -- the "southwest" again intruded into the negotiations, and

the position reverted substantially to what it had been four months earlier, there to remain until October.

The third and crucial point, the question of withdrawal of Japanese troops from and stationing them in China, showed little progress during this period.

Many discussions had resulted only in making it certain that the United States would not be content with any Japanese commitments which did not undertake unequivoctily the limitation of the period and areas of stationing the troops; until Japan could see her way to agreeing at least to the principles which America felt must govern her relations with China, the whole matter remained only "subject to further discussion."

53. It was, however, with the first fruit of the TOJO Cabinet's undertaking to reconsider the situation in the negotiations -- with proposal "A" -- that Japan made the first really significant concessions. It is submitted that analysis of the evidence proves to demonstration that here and henceforth Japan made not only concessions on every point, but repeated and extreme concessions.

Of these the slightest were those in connection with the Tripartite-Pact quistion, as is natural in view of the fact that it was felt (and not, evidently,

on the Japanese side alone)that it had been all but 1 settled. Proposal "A" represented on its face no significant change in the Japanese position -- that Japan had "no intention of making any unwarranted extension of the interpretation of the right of self-defense," and that in interpreting the Tripartite Pact she would "act in accordance with" her own decision. Yet there is a significance in this language which escapes one who would itly read old documents without relating them to the events of their day. In the summer months of 1941 American military preparations and measures had prodigiously increased, were indeed increasing in algebraic progression daily; and only in the month before the TOJO Cabinet took office and commenced its lucubrations over relaxed terms for the negotiations -in September 1941 -- the United States had taken those steps which, however equivocal its previous acts, in fact and in law brought the nation into a state of war Germany and Italy had been warned that with Germany. their naval vessels ventured into the Atlantic at their peril; the "merican Navy's orders were to shoot on sight; American vessels were sinking and were being sunk in North and South Atlantic; and President Ex. 2894 (Tr. 25,798). 285. Defense Summation, Section "E," "On Some Question of International Law," \$14, supra. (Tr.42,431)

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Roosevelt had recognized it to be "a shooting war," and had armed American merchant vessels. commitment to make her own decision of the character of America's acts, to adjudge their self-defensive character or otherwise, in this context take on an utterly different meaning from what they had had before. No matter if the identical words had been used, before, a thousand times -- now they were to be understood in a new state of facts. If America had already, before proposal "A" was handed over on 7 November, gone to war against the European Axis members; if Japan, knowing full well of this, had not attacked America -- is it not plain that the language of proposal "A" is the assuagement to the old American doubt? "Your entry into the European war, although an unprecedented extension of the right of self-defense, We will concede to be a proper extension; we interpret the Tripartite Pact as imposing no obligation on us in the circumstances," it says as plain as day. Of course, this could not be put into words quite so baldly. The Tripartite Pact was there, and even in the new orientation contemplated by the agreement with the United States it had to be paid lip-service. Had 286. Seventy-eighth Congress, 2d Session, Events Leading Up to World Var II (1945), 296-3-1 passim.

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Japan been willing to repudiate the pact entirely (which however the United States had always professed not to require), her so doing would scarcely have been calculated to instill confidence into American breasts concerning the value of their agreement with Japan. At any rate, she showed a clear willingness effectively to reduce the pact to a dead letter. Ambassador NOMURA blurted it out -- "I ask you to 'read between the lines'" -- then, realizing his diplomatic faux pas, retracted; but he would never have said it had he not known his government's intention (this sentence too was part of what he said "under instruction from his government"). Nor would Ambassador KURUSU, after his arrival, have been talking so enthusiastically about arriving at a Japanese-American agreement so splendid that it would "outshine" the Tripartite Pact. What is conclusive is the letter which Ambassador KURUSU offered to sign and hand to Secretary Hull, on Mr. Hull regarded it as of no importance 21 November. (why we can only surmise). But whatever the reason, it is the fact that Japan was willing, as a part of the agreement with the United States which was to 287. Memorancum, ex. 2927 (Tr. at 25,975). 287a. This matter, although not in fact a part of "the negotiations to the presentation of proposal 'B,'" as a continuation of them raising no new question may be conveniently disposed of here.

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"butshine" the Tripartite Pact, to consent to publication of a letter from her Ambassacor containing the statement that "Japan is in a position to interprat its obligation freely and independently and is not to be bound by the interpretation which the other high contracting parties may make of it." With this publication the Tripartite Pact would in very truth have become a dead letter! Japan's concession in this matter had here reached, it is submitted, the point almost of repudiating the pact in words.

54. Secondly, there is the question of economic activities, that which had once before been agreed, then disagreed over. This point, too, however, was as a result of Ambassador NOMURA's report to that effect, regarded as substantially settled.

Mr. Hull, however, had a hobby, for which his name was famous throughout the world -- promoting the idea of free trade among nations. As the evidence discloses, it was his custom frequently to deliver little homilius on this subject to the Japanese Ambassadors, when the conversation turned away from the complexities of the China question, pointing out to them the extent to which he had succeeded in persuading the nations to adopt his principles. What more natural, then, than that the Japanese Government, striving to go as far as possible for agreement in accepting his proposal to widen the scope of the agreement for nondiscriminatory commercial relations to the entire Pacific, propose its extension to the entire world? What more natural, except his delight, which he happily expressed to Ambassador NOMURA upon first reading of the proposal? So thus it stood, in proposal "A": Japan "recognizes the principle of nondiscrimination in international commercial relations to be applied to all the Pacific areas, inclusive of

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China, on the understanding that the principle in question is to be applied uniformly to the entire world as well." Afterthought, it is true, there was -- would such a condition bind the contracting nations to control the donduct of third powers? Assurance that no such absurdity was intended was quickly forthcoming, whereupon Mr. Hull seems to have been content on this point. Well may he have been, Japan conceding, as she did, not only the narrow point involved in the draft proposal but the broad principle the application of which to and by all nations of the world was Secretary Hull's most cherished ambition.

of Japanese troops from China that we are compelled to recognize the really basic concessions made by Japan. To remind ourselves: the questions involved in this point looked like this:

- 1) When will the general withdrawal take place after restoration of peace?
- 2) As to troops to remain stationed in China after restoration of peace,
 - a) In what areas will they be stationed?
 - b) When will they be withdrawn?
 - c) How many of them will there be?

 It is our submission that, considering this

little cluster of questions as a whole, or regarding 1 severally the parts which together equal that whole, there is every confirmation that the defendants have spoken with sincerity as well as with exact truth when they have testified that Proposal "A" represented extreme concessions. It must be remembered that Proposal "A" was not a complete redraft, and that the document which Ambassador NOMURA handed to Eccretary Hull on 7 November and to the President on the 10th is not the whole of it. Proposal "A" consists of that document; of the last complete draft proposal, that of 25 September; and of those additional things which the Ambassador was authorized to put into the form of agreement when one was reached. All these must be : Insidered together when we speak of Proposal "A." We must not forget, also, the very curious circumstances, that although Secretary Hull did not ask the questions which would have brought out the additional points in the Ambassador's instructions, he knew of them. Above all, let it be remembered always that the Americans had been insisting on some definite commitments from the Japanese on such matters as principle as would negative the intent imputed to them of maintaining an overlordship of China.

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56. Taking up the list of questions above, we find that part of Proposal "A" relative to 1) to represent a total concession to the American position. The United States had for a few months been suggesting that a two-year limit be placed on the general withdrawal of troops after restoration of peace; Proposal "A" contains the undertaking that "such forces will commence withdrawal as soon as general peace is restored between Japan and China, and the withdrawal will proceed according to separate arrangements between Japan and China and will be completed within two years with the firm establishment of peace and order." Two years, the American suggestion; there can be no doubt about this point, at all events; it is a concession, made for the first time.

The next point, 2)a), is the one which of all gives least support to our position -- but, at the same time, it is one which seemingly gave rise to as little concern as any in the negotiations.

Never during the negotiations had the exact areas in which troops were to be stationed been specified; the matter had always been one of those "subject to further discussion," and it was assumed throughout that when agreement drew near the details of this matter would have to be grappled with.

Proposal "A" still does not particularize on this glestion. "North China, Inner Mongolia, Hainan Island" is all the detail given. The objection of the Americans was (which was perfectly true) that this was the first mention, in a formal proposal, of Hainan; which somehow, in their eyes, vitiated the entire proposal. The matter seems hardly so important as the State Department suggested, for several reasons. First -- if it matters -- the State Department had had knowledge for months that Hainan was one of the points where it was desired to leave troops stationed. More important is the psychological aspect of it -- that this part of Proposal "A" actually represented a concession, made for the first time, from the extremist demands which had never before been waived. Had agreement become so probable, at any time in the preceding months, that these areas were to be specified, they would (as the State Department knew) have included these three, and more; and the State Department might have considered the possibility that the fact that this concession could be made was symptomatic of a spirit which, given encouragement, might have resulted in concession to unpredictable lengths for the sake of agreement. It was as true in November as in February that Japan would, quite without regard

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to logic, make the concessions to those who showed understanding. At any rate, for argument let us agree with the State Department that the inclusion of Hainan was a retrograde step, and investigate the remainder of Proposal "A."

Our 2)b) is a most interesting point. Mr. Hull thad always expressed himself most strongly about the in-Alefinite period of the proposed troop-stationing; the Impatter of numbers was seldom discussed, and concerning areas he merely showed disapproval of their being "large," But on the time question he was firm; there must not be even that which gave the appearance of permanent stationing or -- which amounted to the same thing -- indefinite tationing; there must be a definite time-limit fixed. s we know, Japanese Government and High Command had at ast, with the approval of Proposal "A", come to an greement that the principle of a time-limit should be This was assuredly the high dramatic moment accepted. 14 of the negotiations; for with that principle admitted 15 by Japan, no matter how difficult might be the working 16 out of the details, no matter how long the time that it 17 might consume, agreement was within sight. Proposal "A" 18 did not express this principle on its face. As we have 19 seen, the Ambassador was given additional instructions for supplementing it, and his instructions on this point were, while making it clear that no longer was indefinite stationing proposed, to fhere if possible to the generalized term which had theretofore throughout the negoti-24 ations been used to express the term of the troop-25 stationing -- "a certain required duration." But he was

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told, if the American Government asked, he was to mention twenty-five years as an "approximate goal." It may well be that twenty-five years was too long (though the State Department has never, down to and including this trial, suggested so); but if so, that was a promising place to enter for negotiation. Willingness at long last to abandon the claim to indefinite rights, to agree to a time-limit at all, suggests a willingness to negotiate over the limit. Again, Secretary Hull knew from the Ambassador that it was Japan's intention to recognize the principle of limiting the time of stationing; and, it will not be forgot, although he did not inquire about the length of time, he knew; he knew that the principle at last accepted. He knew, even, the time-limit which Japan would propose to start bargaining. knew, and could have had no doubt, because he had read Ambassador NOMURA's correspondence, which even in the "Magic" mersion made so much clear.

Where before she had always stood firm, on the most vital point of them all, Japan yielded. Was it no concession?

Lastly, 2)c)is certain. The American officials had, so far as appears from the evidence, never had any commitment from the Japanese concerning the number of troops to remain in China. It is, of course, possible

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to take the view that now, with the principle of with-1 drawal accepted, it was unnecessary to consider this 2 question. Nevertheless, within a few days after the 3 presentation of Proposal "A", Ambassador NOMURA was asked -- the only aspect of this all-important metter which elicited any inquiry -- and readily gave the reply that "possibly 90 per cent would be withdrawn." I press the point again; ten per cent may, or may not, have been an excasive remainder; but the State Department did not suggest that, the State Department did not in fact discuss the matter at all. Was it no concession that Japan was for the first time in the negotiations ready and willing to discuss the practical details of numbers of troops?

57. There is a passage in the evidence, in 16 relation to Proposal "A", which we may use in summation of this point. It is Mr. Ballantine speaking. He has been asked for the State Department's attitude toward one of the points above -- the reasonableness of the twenty-five year limit on troop stationing.

"A We didn't consider each of these small points individually. We considered the proposition as a whole.

110 I do not quite understand how you consider it as a whole without considering details; but

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considering it as a whole, did you consider the 25-year period to be unreasonable? 2 That would have to be taken into consideration with the other elements in the situation -- the total number of troops and the places where they are to be stationed, and so forth." To this day I do not understand how one con-7 siders the whole without noticing the parts. points"? Failure to resolve them in half a year of negotiation led to war. One must take into consideration "the total number of troops and the places where they are to be stationed, and so forth." We have taken them into consideration -- together, they constitute 14 "the proposition as a whole." 15 Perhaps, after all, he had given us the answer: 16 Now, in the proposal also there is again no specific mention of the time of withdrawal of troops, 18 the number of troops to remain, and the other points which were giving concern in the conversations, is there? "A That is correct. But were these points explained in the IIC conversations by the two Japanese Ambassadors? "A We had to read all their explanations in the light of the instructions that was sent to

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(288. T. 10927.)

Ambassador NOMURA. 110 Well, then, there were explanations given? 2 "A Such explanations as were given are fully there in the record. I don't recall exactly what was said." Not recall? If he listered, how could he ever 6 forget? Small points perhaps they were, the questions 8 of the Tripartite Pact, the principle of economic nondiscrimination, the matter of withdrawal of troops from 11 China and Indo-China -- but they go to make up "the 12 proposition as a whole." Is it unreasonable to think 13 that America might have some little interest in this, 14 the first proposal made by a new Japanese Cabinet and 15 believed by it to represent substantial concession? 16 Here is precisely the situation contemplated by the 17 Foreign Minister when he asked assurance of the Premier 18 that "if the United States showed a receptive attitude" 19 toward the proposals newly made, he would give his 20 support to obtain still further reconsideration of the 21 concessions already made. It might have been worth-22 while, just asking the questions which would have showed 23 a receptive attitude. But they were not asked. 24 25 (289. T. 10920-21. Testimony of TOGO, T. 35697.)

PROPOSAL "B"

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That which is known as Proposal 'B'" was the alternative plan approved by the Liaison Conference in Japan for use in the event that no favorable prospect developed from the presentation of Proposal "A". It was realized that the situation, which had been deteriorating since the move into southern Indo-China, had become so tense that it might be very difficult, especially in a short time, to arrive at a definitive settlement at a stroke of all outstanding issues. Proposal "B" was therefore worked out as a modus vivendi, to tide the situation over until a basis for final settlement could be reached (certain particulars in which Proposal "B" goes beyond a mere modus vivendi will be adverted to later.) After mid-November it appeared that there was no favorable prospect from Proposal "A", and Ambassador NOMURA accordingly was instructed to present Proposal "B".

". . . on November 20, the Japanese Ambassador and Mr. KURUSU presented to the Secretary of State a proposal which, on its face, was extreme." haps Mr. Ballantine has employed quite unintentionally revealing language in thus undertaking to characterize Proposal "B". One can visualize him, glancing at the (291. Testimony of YAMAMOTO, T. 25948.

Testimony of Ballantine, T. 10811.)

"Ah! This is extreme!"; discarding it. I hope to be indulged in going behind the face, learning what this document does contain, what it implies and what it might, if not so cavalierly glanced at, have augured.

This is it:

- "1. Both the Governments of Japan and the United States undertake not to make any armed advancement into any of the regions in the South-eastern Asia and the Southern Pacific area excepting the part of French Indo-China where the Japanese troops are stationed at present.
- "2. The Japanese Government undertakes to withdraw its troops now stationed in French Indo-China upon either the restoration of peace between Japan and China or the establishment of an equitable peace in the Pacific area.

"In the meantime the Government of Japan declares that it is prepared to remove its troops now stationed in the Southern part of French Indo-China to the northern part of the said territory upon the conclusion of the present arrangement which shall later be embodied in the final agreement.

"3. The Government of Japan and the United States shall co-operate with a view to securing the acquisition of those goods and commodities which the two

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countries need in Netherlands East Indies.
               The Governments of Japan and the United
 States mutually undertake to restore their commercial re-
 1 tions to those prevailing prior to the freezing of the
 assets.
          "The 'overnment of the United States shall
 supply Japan a required quantity of oil.
          115.
               The Government of the United States under-
 takes to refrain from such measures and actions as will
be prejudicial to the endeavors for the restoration of
293 and China."
          The consequences of acceptance by the United
13States of Proposal "B" are thus formidably catalogued by
14Mr. Ballantine:
          "(it) would have meant condonement by the
16United States of Japan's past aggressions, assent by the
17 United States to unlimited courses of conquest by Japan
18 in the f ture, abandonment by the United States of its
19 whole past position in regard to the most essential
principles of its foreign policy in general, betrayal by
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  the Unites States of China, and acceptance by the United
  States of a position as a silent partner aiding and
 abetting Japan in her effort to create a Japanese
 hegemony in and over the Western Pacific and Asia;
  293. Ex. 1245-H, T. 10811.)
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would have destroyed the chances of asserting and maintaining American rights and interests in the Pacific; and in its final analysis would have meant a most serious threat to American national security."

These are horrendous consequences indeed; but where is the demonstration that they follow from the antecedent? We are given here only the witness's opinion for it -- not explanation, not proof nor demonstration. Perhaps that is not quite fair to him; he does add one more point, with explanation of his conclusion:

"Their conditional offer to withdraw troops from southern Indo-China to Northern Indo-China was meaningless as they could have brought those troops back to southern Indo-China within a day or two, and furthermore they placed no limit on the number of troops they might 295 continue to send there."

The reason for one of Mr. Ballantine's conclusions having been vouchsafed, it may as well serve as a starting point for analysis of the proposal. And first, in regard to the "conditional offer." One is at a loss to know to what these words can possibly refer; this offer is, it is submitted, as completely and effectually unconditional as language can be made to express an undertaking. Where is the condition? The (294. Testimony of Ballantine, T. 10814. 295. Id., T. 10815.)

Japanese Government "declares that it is prepared" to move troops "upon the conclusion of the present arrangement." We are told who is to act, what is to be done, when it is to be carried out. The only condition of its becoming effective is that of acceptance, the passof consideration, the giving of the <u>quid pro suo</u>. If it is in that sense, that the effectiveness of every offer is conditional upon its acceptance, that Mr. Ballantine's language is to be taken, certainly this offer is accurately described as "conditional"; otherwise his language has no meaning and the conclusion no validity. By this example we may test his other sweeping conclusions. Or, so far as concerns the series of them quoted above, we may ignore them except as study of the proposal itself puts them to the test.

THE PRESIDENT: We will recess for fifteen minutes.

(Whereupon, at 1045, a recess was taken until 1100, after which the proceedings were resumed as follows:)

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MARSHAL OF THE COURT: The International Military Tribunal for the Far East is now resumed.

THE PRESIDENT: Major Blakeney.

MR. BLAKENEY: Page 151, Section 60. Mr. Ballantine had, no doubt, his reasons for selecting the Indo-China clause of Proposal "B" for special comment. Whatever they may have been, the fact is suggestive. The critical state to which, by 20 November, relations between we countries had been brought was the result largely, as has been mentioned, 296 of the complications consequent upon the Japanese advance into southern Indo-China. The offer of withdrawal from that area suggests an attempt to turn back the clock, to undo the damage done to Japanese-American relations by that move. And that the intention in drawing Proposal "B" had been that precisely -to restore conditions to what they had been before that movement took place -- is shown by the evidence. By that time there was such a tenseness in the atmosphere, the state of mind, not only of the officials of the two countries but of their public as well, was so filled with mutual suspicion, that it seemed the only hope of saving the situation lay in trying to restore confidence by going back to the status quo 296. Supra, Section 47.

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ante and obliterating all that had happened meanwhile. Thus, says Foreign Minister TOGO, "The intention of Proposal "B" was, by restoring conditions to something resembling normal -- to those prevailing before July -to create a calm atmosphere and remove the imminent threat of an outbreak of war. 297

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This purpose would, it appears, have been reasonably fulfilled by the adoption of the proposal. The menace felt, by the United States and the nations for whom she acted in attempting to reach a settlement 11 with Japan, of the Japanese troops in southern Indo-China would have been removed, and with the giving by Japan of that evidence of good faith the air should have been cleared. Mr. Ballantine, however, says that it would not have been; the troops withdrawn, he points out, could have been returned to the South on short notice. This suggests two considerations. Firstly, that so could Japanese troops, before July, before ever the movement into the South took place, have been brought there on a moment's notice. No assurance against such an act existed in July which did not exist in November; to the extent that America had not felt a Japanese menace before entry of the troops in July, she might reasonably not feel it after 297. Tr. 35698.

their withdrawal in November. They could indeed be returned there, but just as they could in July have been dispatched there. Secondly, Mr. Ballantine's argument amounts, of course, to saying that the United States had no confidence that any agreement reached with Japan would be carried out, which is the same explanation that we have heard him giving earlier for its lack of interest in Proposal "A." 298 Now, to decline negotiations because one has no confidence that any agreement reached will be carried out is one thing, and comprehensible. But to talk of carrying on negotiations, while entertaining such a feeling of suspicion, is surely to suggest only "keeping up the appearance of continuing negotiating," as Mr. Ballantine himself puts it. 299 Whether the American suspicion was justified is beside the point -that is the larger question to which this entire argument is devoted -- but if as a result of it America approached the negotiations with Japan with the conviction that Japan's commitments were worthless, there could be not only no chance of agreement but no purpose in agreeing. On that assumption, agreement for immediate withdrawal of troops from all Indo-China Supra, Section 41. Tr. 10824. 298. 299.

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would have been of no avail. Agreement to disregard the obligations of the Tripartite Pact would have been valueless; an undertaking to withdraw all troops from China in two years would have been worthless; commitment to observance of the principle of nondiscrimination in commercial relations, in any form, would have been meaningless. If that was the position of the Department of State, that any offer made by Japan was meaningless because an agreement founded on it might not be carried out, we can spare ourselves the trouble of devoting study to this small segment of history, 11 but must pass it by, saying that in the Japanese-12 American negotiations of 1941 America deceived Japan 13 14 with trickery. This I do not care to say; and there-15 fore proceed with the attempt to see what analysis 16 of Proposal "B" will teach. 17

61. Proposal "B" was primarily -- on its face and by intention -- a suggestion for a modus vivendi, a temporary adjustment, a plan for "first relaxing the strained relations' between Japan and the United States, especially in the Southwestern Pacific, thereby contributing to the restoration of amicable feelings between the two nations, and in promoting the negotiations thereafter" (as Ambassador NOMURA

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explained to Secretary Hull 300). Possibly a modus 'vivendi could in some circumstances properly be 2 described as "extreme," as this one appeared to 3 Mr. Hull. (Parenthetically, the prosecution allege that Ambassador NOMURA also so regarded it, an assertion without warrant or foundation in the evidence or in fact.) But it must require more .nan the bare assertion, in no matter how strong language it be couched, to bring conviction that this one could have entailed the consequences which Mr. Ballantine without doubt or qualification assigns it as its role. A 10 modus vivendi does not and is not intended to last 11 forever -- the connotations of the Latin phrase by 43,563 which we name it tell us that -- though such provisions 13 as are agreed concurrently with it will. If this 14 modus vivendi is put into effect, it is to make time 15 16 for further negotiations toward settlement of the 17 still unsolved problems -- the Tripertite Pact, the 18 China Affair, economic matters, the Indo-China question 19 itself. What then? Negotiations are resumed; they 20 will succeed, or not, or either party may discontinue 21 them, but in any of those events the modus vivendi 22 is at an end. How has America thereby committed any 23 act of the effect which Mr. Ballantine describes as 24 300. Ex. 2941, Tr. 26031. (Tr. 39666) 1 . A Summation, Section 0-124 (Tr. 39666) 25 The statement by one-time Secretary of State Byrnes

forever -- the cornetations of the Latin phrase by 42,663

that Proposal "B" was "extreme" (Exhibit 1,233,Tr.10,630) is of course the ran'est hearsay, Mr. Byrnes having had no connection whatever with the State Department prior to 1945, and having been a Justice of the Supreme Court in 1941.

sharing in the loot? Where is the threat to her own security, when she can at will take what measures, including war, she pleases? In this case, by the way (this is the point in which Proposal "B" goes beyond a simple modus vivendi), negotiations would have been resumed with a considerable part of the American position already conceded by Japan, if we have been correct in our analysis of the negotiations culminating in Proposal "A" on the Tripartite Pact and economic activities; for Japan was prepared to carry over into an agreement based on Proposal "B" her commitments on these points offered in Proposal "A".

lated to restore something approaching the status quo ante the move into southern Indo-China? Certainly, insofar as Indo-China itself, the main point, is concerned, it did that -- and more -- no troops in the southern part, those in the northern to be withdrawn "upon either the restoration of peace between Japan and China or the establishment of an equitable peace in the Pacific area." This latter clause having appeared in no Japanese proposal prior to 28 August, 302. Ex. 779, p. 7; Testimony of YAMAMOTO (Tr. 25948).

the position regarding withdrawal from northern Indo-China is much improved over that of July. But "restoring the status quo ante" means, fundamentally, restoration of confidence; and herein, it is submitted, is the real significance of Proposal "B." Considering Japanese-American relations of 1941 in their entire aspect, it had been the Indo-China move of July by which relations had changed from bad to tense. That action had convinced the United States and her associates that Japan was bent on following the course of aggression, and would not be dissuaded, that her protestations of peaceful intent were those of insincerity; the sequel to that action, the American, British and Dutch rupture of economic relations with Japan, was regarded by Japan as economic relations with Japan, was regarded by Japan as economic warfare upon her, threatening her very existence. The United States, of course, did not know by what process of compromise, of resolution of conflicting views of policy, the Liaison Conference in Tokyo had come to the willingness to enter into a modus vivendi including immediate and unconditional withdrawal of troops from southern Indo-China. But America had, I say, regarded the move into that area as all-but-conclusive proof of Japan's settled policy of aggression; how could

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she mistake the tremendous psychological significance of this retreat? No matter if the troops could be returned to southern Indo-China in a few days; the evidence of this proposal reversing pro tanto that policy was that it was being abandoned, for an aggressor does not voluntarily abandon his conquests while retaining his aggressive intent. The very fact that such a proposal could be made was indicative (and, as the Tribunal knows from the testimony of many witnesses to the violent disputes occasioned by it in the Japanese Liaison Conference, was in truth the proof) that the policy of use of force was losing its vigor. Balla time said that it was still possible, even then, for Japan to give evidence of good faith "by withdrawing troops or any other practical evidence of an intention to follow peaceful courses"; more practical evidence than this agreement for immediate withdrawal of the very troops the dispatch of which had brought the conviction of Japan's unpeaceful course? This change of front by Japan, it is submitted, can in respect of this question be regarded only as a restoration and more of the status quo ante the move into the south. 303. Tr. 10938

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What of the other questions involved in 63. Proposal "B"; have the Japanese proposals as to them the effect of restoration of the status quo ante? The prosecution, claiming thereby to have demonstrated the "narrowing" process which they contend characterized the Japanese attitude toward the Japanese-American negotiations, have adopted the method of comparison of successive Japanese proposals (comparison "as a whole," of course, never of "small details"). Let us apply that process -- but attending to the parts of the whole -- to the position as it stood with the presentation of Proposal "B." Taking the proposal by items, it is instructive to place beside it the corresponding provisions of the proposal of 6 August, 304 the first which undertook solution of the Indo-China question, and the intervening one of 25 September, 305 to find how the Japanese position had changed.

Withdrawal of forces from French Indo-China was proposed, in August, upon settlement of the China Affair; in September upon establishment of an equitable peace in the Pacific area. By Proposal "B" in November, both alternatives were offered; with the new agreement to withdraw from Southern Indo-China immediately.

304. Ex. 2805, Tr. 25760. 305. Ex. 1245-E, Tr. 10782.

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Clearly no narrowing there; far broader.

In August, a special status of Japan in Indo-China was to be recognized even after withdrawal of troops; in September, the principle of commercial nondiscrimination was recognized to be applied to the Southwestern Pacific area. In November, application to the entire world of the principle of nondiscrimination was agreed (brought over from Proposal "A"). No narrowing there, but the ultimate in broadening.

In August, the United States was to tender good offices for peace negotiations between Japan and China; in September, to refrain from measures which would hamper efforts for settlement of the China Affair; in November, to refrain from measures prejudicial to the endeavor for restoration of peace. Though differently phrased, the three mean the same thing, the first having always been explained as requiring cessation of aid to Chiang Kai-shek. No broadening, but no narrowing.

In August, there was to be American cooperation to secure for Japan resources needed from the Netherlands East Indies, Japanese cooperation to secure for America such resources needed from East Asia; in September, cooperation to secure commodities from the Powers concerned. In November, cooperation

to secure commodities required by the two countries in the Netherlands Indies. Possibly somewhat narrowed -but to be considered in the light of the fact that in Movember Japan no longer demanded recognition of any special position of hers in French Indo-China and the Netherlands Indies.

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In August (and in September, substantially) Japanese guarantee of the neutralization of the Philippines is to be given on condition of nondiscriminatory treatment of Japanese nationals and interests there. In November there is no mention of this 12 matter. Prohably a broadening.

Finally, though it is not expressed in the proposal, it appears that the November offer contemplated that Proposal "A's" 25-year goal for withdrawal of troops from China would stand -- unless, indeed, in accordance with the general tone of Proposal "B" as exemplified by the immediate retreat from southern Indo-China, this term too was to be relaxed still more. This, of course, a tremendous broadening.

64. The only intimation given us by the evidence of that in Proposal "B" which constrained 25 Mr. Hull to regard it as "extreme" was his response to the clause providing for American abstention from

measures "prejudicial to the endeavors for the restoration of general peace between Japan and China." Ambassador NOMURA reported after the interview at which he presented Proposal "B" that "Hull showed complete disapproval of the item,"306 and that point alone appears, from the evidence, to have occasioned any discussion. For understanding of those discussions, it is necessary to go back a moment.

On 7 November, when Proposal A was presented to Secretary Full, he had inquired of Ambassador NOMIRA as his own personal idea how Japan would receive a pledge from China's highest authority to the government and people of Japan of China's sincere friendship and desire for restoration of friendly 6 This suggestion being transmitted to relations. Tokyo, it was readily accepted, on the understanding (which was never denied) that it implied the proposing by Chiang Kai-shek of peace negotiations, to promote the establishment of peace between the two nations. 11 It was concurrently pointed out to Ambassador NOMURA that 12 it would still "meet the original desire of the Japan-13 ese Government ... if the United States intends at this juncture to proffer its good offices between Japan 15 16 and China in accordance with the line suggested by Secretary Hull ..." 17 (It had been assumed by every 18 proposal and counter-proposal and in all conversations 19 since May that as part of any settlement the United 20 States would tender such good offices, or "suggest" 21 to China the commencement of negotiation, or some 22 equivalent, and that peace negotiations would start 23 simultaneously with the Japanese-American settlement.) 24 307. Ex. 2928 (tr. at 25,989). 25 308. %x. 2930 (tr. 25,998) 309. %x. 2932 (tr. 26,000)

This was on 10 November.

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After the presentation of Proposal B it was still the Japanese position that realization of President Roosevelt's offer to act as "introducer" to bring Japan and China together for peace talks was desired -abandoning the long-standing policy of refusal to treat with Chiang Kai-shek -- and that it was hoped that China would pledge friendship and that peace talks would 310 begin in accordance with Secretary Hull's suggestion. This, as Foreign Minister TOGO pointed out, implied the expectation that "an agreement for a truce will be concluded between Japan and China at the opening of such negotiations," concurrently with the closure of an agreement under Proposal B; there seems therefore to be much logic in his position that as a matter of course American aid to China would from the conclusion of the agreement be neither necessary to China, with hostilities suspended, nor consistent with the American role of supporter of efforts for peace. Although Secretary Hull had taken exception to the clause of Proposal B relating to the stoppage of this aid, he could scarcely have taken exception to it on any ground of newness, it having been a familiar item of proposals 310. Ex. 2947 (tr. at 26,052). 311. <u>Ibid</u>.

from months before. He had in fact said only that it was difficult to change the poli aid to China "so long as it remains unclear whether Japan's attitude toward peace is unwavering." mitted that, at least until such time as she received some sign of sympathetic reception. Japan had at the time of Proposal B by her willingness to abandon southern Indo-China and the eagerness revealed to make a peace with the China of Generalissimo Chiang made as clear as could be expected a desire to adopt an attitude of peace.

65. The prosecution give evidence of having some difficulty -- of which the State Department showed no trace -- over the oil question in Proposal B. was a part of the implementation of the clause for restoration of commercial relations to those prevailing prior to the freezing of assets in July, and as such would merely have put matters in the posture they had at that time. It was provided that "The Government of the United States shall supply Japan a required quantity of oil." Oil was being supplied, subject to numerous restrictions, prior to the economic rupture. When for a time there appeared a prospect of agreement on

312. Ex. 2941 (tr. 26,030).

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the basis of Proposal B, instructions were sent to Ambassador NOMURA of the quantity of oil which would be expected in accordance with this provision. was a natural move, with no sinister implications; the Japanese Government had instructed the "mbassy when Proposal B was being presented that "the required quantity be decided upon by agreement of both governments before the signatures are affixed to this present agreement," and again in the telegram instructing the quantity required it was pointed out that "as negotiations develop but prior to the signing of the agreement" there should be discussion of the amount to be The prosecution, however, point out that supplied. a proposal that a much larger quantity be stipulated for was originally submitted by the Army General Staff -which is true but, so far as concerns the United States, irrelevent in any event, because that proposal was never submitted to her. Instead, at the insistence of the Foreign Ministry the amount to be stipulated was much reduced -- to a figure roughly equivalent to the average of imports over some few years preceding. It is said by the prosecution that "YAMAMOTO tried to leave the impression that the plan was not considered 313. Ex. 2944 (tr. 26,041) 314. Ex. 1180 (tr. 26 10,388). 315. Ex. 2944 (tr. 26,041) 316. Testimony of TOGO (tr. 35,703)

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by the Liaison Conference," but that "the accused TOGO made it clear in his affidavit that such a proposal was submitted but that the requirements were reduced substantially at his insistence." The statement is correct except in its inference that Mr. TOGO testified that the original plan was submitted to the Liaison Conference; while it would be immeterial if true, it is not true and there is no evidence supporting the inference.

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Thile the prosecution, by the way, appear critical of the amount of oil thus stipulated, the United States seems to have evinced no concern over that point. Secretary Hull did call attention of Ambassador NOMURA to the fact that Japanese oil imports hed taken a sharp rise just before the freezing went into effect, which suggested to him stock-piling for military use; but the request which went to Ambassador NOMURA for submission to the United States was upon an entirely different basis from the imports of that period of time which was worrying I'r. Hull. The quantity desired from the United States was approximately the average of imports for the years 1938-40, when normal commercial relations were subsisting;

^{317.} Summation, SG-125 (tr. 39,669). 318. Memorandum, Ex. 1184 (tr. at 10,402). 319. Fr. 2944 (tr. 26,041).

Netherlands Indies, substantially that which had been agreed between Japan and the Netherlands authorities 320 in mid-1940.

66. Proposal B, then, upon dissection seems to have inherent in it none of those tendencies which Mr. Ballantine felt impelled to catalog so horrendously. At eny rate, if the State Pepartment was perturbed over one aspect of it or another -- over the cessation of aid to Chiang Kai-shek, or the petroleum requirement, which it knew from intercepts, or something else -those things might have been the subject of negotiation. Agein, as in case of Proposal A, it did not put the questions, whether relaxation was not possible, did not make the counter-proposals which could have led to negotiation on such points. It appears that again, possibly because of lingering distrust, the United States took little account of the words of the proposals or the explanations of the Japanese Ambassadors, but relied rather on what it thought was contained in the Ambassadors' instructions.

Secretary Hull told Ambassadors NOMURA and KURUSU that not only he, but the representatives of Britain, Australia and the Netherlands, would be glad 320. Testimony of ISHIZAWA (tr. 25,273, as corrected)

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to go some way to meet Japan "if Japan has (a) firm 321 intention for carrying out a peaceful policy."

Proposal B, coming after Proposal A, appears at this distance to have been an altogether extraordinary manifestation of such an intention. It is submitted that it may well be regarded as a most reasonable effort to errive at a modus vivendi, and even concurrently to concede several of the substantive points to the United States. The first retreat -- physically, of soldiers, forthwith -- the first immediate abandonment of what the "estern Powers regarded as Japan's ill-got gains; the clearest indication that there yet lived unsuppressed a moderate spirit in Japan; these are the significant aspects of Proposal B.

THE "HULL NOTE"

to Ambassador NOMURA on 26 November (frequently referred to as the "Hull Note") was such as might, in view of the history of the negotiations, have been expected. Secretary Hull, in his oral statement accompanying the document, referred to it as "an effort to bridge the gap between our draft of June 21, 1941, and the Japanese 321. Fy. 1184 (tr. 10,402).

draft of September 25 by making a new approach to the essential problems underlying a comprehensive Pacific settlement." The recipients of the note, on the other hand, regarded it as being wholly a new departure, as an "ultimatum" or "challenge," and as closing the gates on efforts to settle the problems between the nations by further negotiation on the line which had been followed in the past. Fi It is submitted that the prosecution's repeated stigmatization as "insolent" of the defendants' statements of their views to this effect does not assist in determination of the case; it cannot be "insolent" for a defendant to criticize the policy of the United States and defend his own, for which he is on trial; he has the right to make his defense, affirmative as well as negative, and to show if he can that good faith or probable cause which, if established, will prove him not to have acted criminally and to be entitled to acquittal.

It is proposed therefore to subject the United States note of 26 November to analysis to determine whether its effect is that which I'r. Hull believed or that mentioned by the defendants. The document is too long to set out in full here. It commences with a 322. Tx. 1245-I (tr. 10,815, at 10,819). 323. Testimony of TOGO (35,706, 36,093, 36,108).

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statement, different in language but not in essence from what had been included in the earlier drafts, of general principles, but including Fr. Hull's "Four Principles." The operative provisions are found in a second part, entitled "Steps to be taken by the Government of the United States and the Government of Japan." These may be summarized in this way: refull to them the second them. 324. Fx. 1245-I (tr. at 10,821 et seq.)

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- 1) The two governments to endeavor to conclude a multilateral nonaggression pact among themselves and the British Empire; China, the Netherlands, the Soviet Union and Thailand.
- 2) The two governments to endeavor to conclude among themselves and the British, Chinese,
 Dutch and Thai Governments an agreement for respecting the territorial integrity of French Indo-China,
 for joint consultation over necessary measures to
 meet any threat to it which might develop, and for
 maintenance of equality of commercial opportunity in
 Indo-China.
- 3) Japan to withdraw all military, naval, air and police forces from China and Indo-China.
- 4) The two governments to support no government or regime in China other than the Chungking Government.
- 5) Both governments to give up all extraterritorial rights in China, including rights under the Boxer Protocol and concessions, and to ondeavor to obtain the agreement of other governments to do likewise.
- 6) The two governments to enter into negotiations for conclusion of a trade agreement based on most-favored-nation treatment and reduction of trade

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barriers.

7) The freezing of assets to be rescinded by both governments.

- 8) A plan to be agreed upon and a fund established for stabilization of the dollar-yen rate.
- 9) Both governments to agree that no agreement which either had concluded with any third Power should be interpreted in such a way as to conflict with the fundamental purpose of this agreement, the establishment and preservation of peace throughout the Pacific area.
- 10) Both governments to use their influence to induce other nations to adhere and give practical application to the basic political and economic principles of this agreement.

This was the proposal which the Japanese Government felt to have ignored the progress toward understanding of eight months of negotiation, and to have been the challenge to surrender or war in that the United States knew that it could but be unacceptable to Japan. Of it the prosecution say that "it contained not a single proposal, except for the multilateral treaties, which had not been repeatedly made before. It did not ask Japan to do anything

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which she was not already committed to do." brief discussion may be of service in finding the truth between these widely-separated views.

68. The multilateral nonaggression pact had never before been mentioned, so far as the evidence discloses, in the negotiations. This proposal thus not only implied importing into the discussion two additional nations -- the USSR and Thailand -- but by suggesting action which would inevitably be time-consuming and productive of delay pointed to indefinite protraction of the attempts to reach a settlement despite the critically tense situation then prevailing. In Japan, as the Tribunal knows from the evidence, the government was under strong pressure of the armed forces -- which felt that they would be incapable of carrying out their duty of defense of the nation if any further delay occurred -- to conclude an agreement or at the least show some signs of progress toward one without further loss of time. Such a provision as this

Summation, G-128-A (T. 39674).
KONOYE Memoirs, exhibits 2913 (T. 25860) and 2914 (T. 25868); testimony of YAMAMOTO (T. 25922-24), TOGO (T. 35690-97), and TOJO (T. 36292, ot seq.).

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one was perfectly calculated to cut the ground from under the government's feet in its effort to secure general consent to continuance of negotiations.

The same remarks are pertinent to the second clause, that for a multilateral agreement over the status of French Indo-China. Japan had already, by Proposal "B," abandoned any claim on her part to special rights there; putting the matter in form of a multilateral agreement would but complicate the solution of the Indo-China problem and postpone its eventual settlement.

These two points were wholly new with the 26 November plan; those which follow deal, for the most part, with those things which had been the subject matter of the negotiations. Clause three may be considered, in view of the dominant importance throughout the negotiations from beginning to end of the question of a Sino-Japanese settlement and the stationing of Japanese troops thereafter in China, as the crux of the Hull note. The clause provides for the withdrawal of Japanese forces -- military, naval, air and police -- forthwith and unconditionally from China and Indo-China. The negotiations from May to November having been centered largely around the questions of the time for and the terms of Japanese

withdraval of those forces, it is self-evident that this clause is a great departure from what had formerly been the American position. As we have already seen, the State Department's interest had been to secure definition of the time for which Japanese troops would be left in China for the purposes contended by Japan to be reasonable and necessary, to mark out precisely the areas in which those troops would be stationed, to know what their numbers would be. Such questions had, ever since the first American counter-proposal of 31 May, been "subject to further discussion" (and had remained so in the last American draft, that of 21 June). The United States representatives had repeatedly said that they had no thought of demanding immediate, total, unconditional withdrawal from China, but were prepared to discuss -- as in fact they did exhaustively discuss -- the details of the withdrawal, There in long months of negotiation their chief concern had been to have a clear manifestation only that the stationing of troops would be limited in time (and to proper areas), where but ten days earlier they had offered no objection to Japan's leaving stationed in China ten per cent of her troops then there, 327. Tertimony of Ballantine (T. 10913); Memorandum, exhibit 2911 (T. 25856).
328. Exhibit 2940 (T. 26027).

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complete ambandonment of any effort at further discussion demanded Japan's immediate and unconditional
submission to a far harsher demand than had ever before been suggested. This clause, it cannot be doubted,
may be correctly described as "ignoring all past
progress in the negotiations."

So of the proposed mutual undertaking to support no government or regime in China other than that of Chungking; this is in two ways a radical new departure. On the one hand, the question of Manchukuo had likewise always been "subject to further discussion" Japan had included "recognition of Manchukuo" as a term in its proposals, the United States had countered with "amicable negotiations in regard to Manchoukuo" and had leit the matter "subject to further discussion." By this proposal discussion is cut off, Manchoukuo is to be abandoned. Additionally, the Hull note requires the repudiction of the Wang Ching-wei regime of Nanking, which the discussions had contemplated would, rather than being destroyed, merge and fuse with that of and in this respect likewise is Chiang Kai-shek, a new departure.

The fifth clause, proposing abandonment by the parties of all extraterritorial rights in China, 329. Memorandum, exhibit 1083 (T. 9964).

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was certainly not the request that Japan do something that "she was already committed to do," as the or Secution think. An extratorritorial right is a right, which is to say by definition something which the possessor is not under obligation to give up; indeed, such a claim was never made in the negotiations, though Secretary Hull did suggest the desirability of such rights' being surrendered by all countries having them. In fact, the Tribunal can take judicial notice that, though the United States has by treaty made during war time surrendered her extraterritorial rights in China, other nations retain them today, nor is it clear that they are "committed" to giving them up until they commit themsalves to doing so. At all events, the proposal that the United States and Japan alone abandon such rights as of Navember 1941 would have meant, not the promotion of equal opportunity and the Open Door in China, but the putting of those two countries at a disadvantage as regards other powers which might not yield to their persuations to follow suit. Japan had for half a century maintained its claim (recognized by the United States, for example, in the 1917 Lansing-ISHII Agreement) that geographical propinquity Exhibit 2317 (T. 17389).

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to China endowed it with special interests there, which should be internationally recognized; now, it was demanded that she not only abandon that claim (which had been done, so far as commerce is concerned, by Proposal "A"), but recognize the possession of such positions, superior to hers, of all other countries except the United States.

Clauses six, seven and eight, providing for mutual rescission of the freezing of assets, most-favored-nation trade relations and exchange stabilization, were substantially in accord with the trend of the preceding negotiations.

considerably beyond America's insistence theretofore, amounting in effect to the requirement that the pact be repudiated. While certainly the wording of the clause is not offensive -- that no agreement which either party had concluded should be "interpreted in such a way as to conflict with . . . the establishment and preservation of peace throughout the Pacific area" -- in the context of the conditions when it was delivered this clause, going much beyond the previous American demands for a Japanese declaration that the purpose of the pact was defensive and that it would not be called into operation by American action in

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self-defense, amounted to a requirement that the Pact be publicly abrogated. The interpretation demanded by this 26 November note is not only a reversion to the American contention that that is properly denominated self-defense which it chooses to denominate so, but is a more embracing requirement of interpretation tantamount to a demand for repudiation. In the past, America had required an interpretation which would prevent war with Japan if the United States, acting in what she conceived to be selfdefense, became involved in war with Japan's ally, Germany. The interpretation now proposed requires that action which would disturb the peace of the Pacific shall in no circumstances be taken in obedience to that Pact -- whether America move in selfdefense or conduct war of unblushing aggression, still the Pact shall not be interpreted "in such a way as to conflict with the fundmanetal purpose of this agreement, the establishment and preservation of peace throughout the Pacific area."

The last clause, providing for the attempt to induce other nations to follow the courses agreed by these two, is of course unobjectionable, and embodies an idea which had been implicit throughout the negotiations.

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69. Reverting, now to Secretary Hull's 1 suggestion that this document was founded upon the 2 last preceding American proposal, that of 21 June, 3 let us put side by side the chief controversial provisions of each, stating them not in ipsissimis 5 verbis but in terms of their effects in the light of 6 the conversations: 7 21 June 331 26 November 332 8 (No equivalent provision) Multilateral non-aggression 9 10 pact. (No equivalent provision) 11 multilateral convention con-12 cerning French Indo-China. 13 Questions of the time and Immediate and unconditional 14 terms for withdrawal of withdrawal of all Japanese 15 Japanese troops from China military, naval, air and 16 subject to further discuspolice forces from China 17 sion (no equivalent proviand Indo-China. 18 sion as to Indo-China) 19 Amicable negotiations in Non-recognition of any re-20 regard to wanchukuo. gime or government in China 21 other than the Chungking 22 Government. 23

331. Exhibit 1092 (Tr. 10,005) 332. Exhibit 1245-I (Tr. 10,815)

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21 June

26 November

Japan to give an interpretation of the Tripartite Pact satisfactory to America that American actions in self-defense would not call it into operation against her.

Japan to give an interpre- Abrogation of the Tripartation of the Tripartite tite Pact.

(No equivalent provision)

Renunciation of extra-territorial rights, concessions and Boxer Protocol rights in China.

It is submitted that on the face of this juxtaposition, not only had the various provisions of the Hull note not been "repeatedly made before," but the most of them are completely new, the remainder go much further than any United States position theretofore taken. Of the ten points which compose it numbers 6, 7, 8 and 10 may be conceded to be neither new nor objectionable. Of the remaining six points as we have grouped them above, only one can be in any way considered to represent demands made before. The multilateral non-aggression pact and convention concerning Indo-China are, as the prosecution concede, wholly new. The suggestion that the United States

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required the immediate and total withdrawal of Japanese troops from China, so far from having been repeatedly made before, had been repeatedly denied by the Secretary of State and his assistants in the negotiations, and was specifically denied by one of them from the witness box here, in this Tribunal; a provision for complete withdrawal of troops is certainly new in the sense that it is not an aspect of the question of how many troops shall remain in what areas for how long. There is no evidence of any prior American insistence upon immediate withdrawal of troops from Indo-China; though of course Japan had offered it, so far as concerns the southern part, by Proposal "B." Non-recognition of any regime or government in China other than that of Chungking implied withdrawal of recognition from wanchukuo, never before demanded but always treated as a matter for settlement between China and Japan, and from the Wang Ching-wei regime, which (while she had never approved of it) America had seemingly been content, in the past, to see fused with the Chungking Government. The surrender by Japan and the United States of their extraterritorial rights in China had never before been proposed more concretely than as part of 333. Testimony of Ballantino (Tr. 10,913):

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a dream of Mr. Hull's for general realization. In the proposal relative to the Tripartite Pact alone can ve find something recognizably like positions which had preceded; true, an "interpretation" is still demanded, as always, but it is now one so vague and general as to amount to that repudiation of the Pact which the United States had always maintained that it did not ask.

The prosecution will have it that "it 70. is impossible to ascertain in what respect (the Hull Note) is an ultimatum. The accused themselves and their witnesses, when asked to point out what in the comment partook of the nature of an ultimatum, were either unable to do so or else went off into the rarefied realm of Japanese metaphysics."334 Counsel has not read the record. Defendants gave their reasons for considering the Hull Note to be an "ultimatum," or did so to the extent that they were permitted to do so by cross-examining counsel; in the few instances then the prosecution ventured to cross-examine on the matter, the explanations were cut off by change of subject or by the cross-examiner's wandering off into argumentative questions on matters of opinion.

34. Summation, \$G-128-A (Tr. 39,673)
35. Testimony of defendants SHIMADA (Tr. 34,763), TOGO (question by Tribunal, Tr. 36,127-8, 36,135-8) and TOJO (Tr. 36,082-92). Defendants KAYA, KIDO and SUZUKI, who testified in chief re this, not cross-examined as to it.

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The prosecution made a valiant effort to confine discussion of the Hull Note to the mere words on the paper, to abstractions or metaphysics, to exclude any effort to interpret it as a fact in relation to its context of circumstance. It is, of course, the practical application to international affairs of the general principles which -- just as it has furnished the subject of negotiations -- was so treated in the Hull Note as to lead the defendants to the belief which they entertained. Let us inquire what those practical applications as framed in Mr. Hull's proposal would have amounted to.

The greater number of the stipulations of the American note centered about the China question.

Japan was to withdraw forthwith all troops from China, including even the police who were there to enforce order in concessions and Boxer Protocol areas; those concessions and the rights granted under the Boxer Protocol were to be surrendered, with all other extraterritorial rights; the withdrawal and surrender of rights was applicable equally to manchukuo, from which also Japanese recognition was to be withdrawn; the Wang Ching-wei Government was to disappear. The effect of this would have been complete and total withdrawal from the Continent -- abandonment of

Japan's legitimate as well as illegitimate interests. As one of the defendants pointed out, "such a political condition or situation would of itself affect even the area of Korea." That is to say, Japan would be placed in a predicament wherein she must withdraw Her Continental interests totally also from Korea. abandoned, her prestige in Asia vanished, Japan truly, "vis-a-vis international relations, would have been placed in the same situation that she is in today. To say that again in different words, this demand was asking Japan to return to a situation and circurstances which were already much worse than the situation which existed at the time of the Manchurian Incident. Or, more than that, to return to the situation in which Japan was before the Russo-Japanese War. In other words, this was asking for Japan's suicide as a great Power in East Asia was the effect of the Hull Note the defendants may well have believed; and that Japan's "suicide as a great Power" right result in her ceasing to be a Power at all, or even an independent nation, is not inconceivable. Japan could not become again the recluse island empire that she had been before the day the West Testimony of TOGO (Tr. 36,136) 336. Ibid.

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forced her at cannon-mouth to emerge into the world; she was become too populous, she could not support her people; unless a Power, she was nothing, she was a beggar among nations. So felt all of them; "the general opinion was that acceptance of the conditions of this note would be tantamount to the defeat of Japan," says another of the defendants;

"... it seems clear that no nation willingly relegates itself to a secondary position as a
world power if it can help it... As a patriotic
Japanese loving my country I was confronted with the
question of whether or not Japan could bow to the
American demands and yet preserve its standing in
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the world."

Japanese acceptance were those which would be imposed by victor upon vanquished, those equivalent to what China might have offered to Japan after defeating her, but cannot be comprehended coming from a neutral interested in rendering good offices by way of mediation rather than one undertaking full intervention in the conflict. Nor, it should be noted, was this the opinion of the defendants alone in Japan. There is no record of dissent by anyone conversant with the 338. Testimony of SHIMADA (Tr. 34,665-66)

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circumstances who passed judgment on the Hull Note--Liaison Conference, Cabinet, Supreme War Council, Elder Statesmen, all agreed. The prosecution now attempt to minimize the concurrence of the Elder Statesmen; they are now the defendants' "fellow conspirators" (notwithstanding two of them were important prosecution witnesses, one being given an extraordinary testimonial in open court by the chief prosecutor). and they could not exercise informed judgment because "all really vital material was withheld" from them. Unfortunately for this latter contention, the very "fellow conspirator" who testified to materal's having been withheld stated also that detailed explanation, to the satisfaction of all present, was made of the diplomatic questions; "withholding," if it occurred, was of military and production data, and so may have affected their judgment of Japan's prospects in a war, but not of her compulsion to undertake it.

much breath has been expended in this courtroom in discussion of the topic, "ultimatum." Whether the Hull Note be characterized as an "ultimatum" is utterly im aterial; it is its effect which concerns us.

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Tr. 29,301 Summation, \$G-132 (Tr. 39,680) Testimony of Admiral OKADA, Keisuke (Tr. 29,314)

The Japanese thought that it forced war upon then. Ar. Hull thought the same, With the handing of his note to the Japanese Ambassadors on 26 November, he placed the Latter "in the hands of the army and Navy" -- the words are his own -- announcing on the 27th that "the conversations had been terminated with the barest possibility of resumption."343 The free press of America formed the same opinion of the Hull Note; the Secretary held special press conferences on the 26th and 27th, when, abandoning the policy of both governments since the beginning of the negotiations, he explained the whole matter to the press: it responded by proclaiming it Japan's choice, whether to Looked at from the accept the Note or fight. Japanese side of the Pacific, it was Hobson's choice: Japan could only surrender now, or fight to all-butsure defeat. The Hull Note is a part of history now; let us leave it with a contemporary historian's words: "As for the present war, the Principality of Monaco, the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, would have taken up arms against the United States on receipt of such a note as the State Department sent the Japanese Government on the eve of Pearl Harbor." Testimony of Ballantine, (Tr. 10,954)
Ex. 2863, Tr. 25,624 346. Nock, Memoirs of a
Ex. 2840, Tr. 26,370 Superfluous Man (1943)
Ex. 2950, Tr. 26,056 249. 342. 343.

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NEGOTIATIONS AFTER 26 NOVEMBER.

71. Receipt of the Hull Note in Japan put an end to all but the faintest hopes that agreement could be reached with the United States and war averted. Japan -- which, as has been montioned, gight have been able to yield still further had she received any response to her concessions already made -- could see no hope if the Hull Note stood. So much was agreed by the Liaison Conference which first considered the Note after its receipt, on 27 and it was agreed that a decision for war November; would have to be taken unless meanwhile efforts to secure American reconsideration should succeed. recision for war was ande on 1 December; but the efforts to obtain reconsideration, both before and after 1 December, failed. Japan's hardly made offers to relax her stand having all been discarded by the United States as of no account, she had nothing with which to induce reconsideration but whatever effect might come of taking a strong stand by convincing the United States that her fire closing of the negotiations was to be regretted.

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Supra, \$57
Testimony of YAMAMOTO, Tr. 26,058; TOGO, Tr. 35,706; and TOJO, Tr. 36,358-59.
Testimony of YAMAMOTO, Tr. 26,062.
Testimony of TOGO, Tr. 35,712. 347. 348. 349.

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Of the diplomatic correspondence of this period between Forcign Ministry and Embassy in Washington there was introduced into evidence a considerable amount, which the prosecution at the time professed to view with considerable alarm but in their summation pass over without special comment. In view of this recognition of its true importance, it may be simply disposed of here. The instructions to the Ambassadors between 27 November and 1 December not to break off negotiations, despite the probability that such a rupture would be the result of the Hull Note, are but recognition of the fact that the Foreign ministry could not decide to break off negotiations and to go to war; until that was decided by the competent authority, negotiations and attempts to negotiate naturally continued unterminated. After the actual decision for war on 1 December, likewise there remained a hope of agreement, perhaps infinitesimal but not to work for the realization of which would have been inexcusable. This obvious point has been put by Mr. Hull himself, in saying that even when the situation was "virtually hopeless" one had to "clutch at straws"; "we did not want to overlook the slightest chance," as ir. Exhibits 1193, Tr. 10,442; 1194, Tr. 10,444; and 1195, Tr. 10,450. Ex. 2840, Tr. 26,362. 353. Tr. 10,969 351.

Mr. Ballantine says. Japan therefore made several 1 attempts to secure American reconsideration, suggesting that the negotiations go back to the propos-3 als and counter-proposals under discussion before the The significance of this was, of course, Hull Note. 5 that it had been agreed and was understood by the 6 Japanese Government and High Command that if the 7 negotiations should be brought to successful conclu-8 sion even after the decision to go to war had been 9 taken, operational plans for war were to be canceled. 10 In view of the eagerness of Japan during the final 11 part of the negotiations to "clutch at straws" to 12 save the situation -- as evidenced by the readiness 13 denonstrated to rake basic concessions -- it is not 14 15 unreasonable to suppose that even an American willing-16 ness to resume negotiations right have sufficed to 17 bring about suspension of those plans. 18 72. An incident of which the prosecution have 19 attempted to make much is the recommendation sent by 20

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354. Testimony of Ballantine (Tr. 10,963)
355. Exhibit 809 (Tr. 7988; testimony of YAMAMOTO (Tr. 26,062); MIYO, Tatsukichi, (Tr. 26,726); GENDA, Minoru (Tr. 26,750); SUZUKI, Teiichi (Tr. 35,225); TOGO (Tr. 35,714) and TOJO (Tr. 36,396).

ALbassadors NOMURA and KURUSU to the Foreign ministry

on 26 November that to alleviate the tenseness in the

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situation an exchange of telegrams, expressive of cordiality, be arranged between President Roosevelt and an unspecified Japanese authority. crete suggestion which the Ambassadors made was that the President should wire that he hoped that Japan and America would cooperate for the maintenance of peace in the Pacific, to which the Japanese reply would propose the neutralization of Indo-China, the Netherlands Indies and Thailand. Quite naturally, the Japanese Government rejected the suggestion as holding out no prospect of solution at that time; it is curious indeed that the prosecution have sought to make an issue of it. The neutralization of Indo-China had of course been proposed by President Roosevelt as long before as July, even prior to the Japanese move southward; and it had then been rejected without discus-By November such a proposal would have been sion. still less acceptable to Japan -- quite aside from the fact that the Ambassador's suggestion offered no solution of such difficult related questions as action to be taken in connection with freezing of assets or steps which the United States would take toward mediating for Exhibit 1189 (Tr. 10,419)
Testimony of YALLAMOTO (Tr. 26,064); TOGO
(Tr. 35,704-5, 35,707); and TOJO (Tr. 36,360).
Supra, 848. 356. 357.

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settlement of the China Affair. Withdrawal of troops from Southern Indo-China alone had with much difficulty been agreed upon as an item of Proposal."B"; withdrawal from the whole of Indo-China, with the China Affair (for terminating which troops had originally been stationed there) unsettled, and with no American quid pro quo mentioned, would have been out of the question. The Arbassadors' proposal was, in any event, made before they had been handed the Hull Note; the Government, considering it in the light of the Hull Note (knowledge of which was simultaneously received), had no difficulty in rejecting it as useless. The Ambassadors' report of reception of the Hull Note, advising that there was no prospect of reaching an agreement "unless the United States wholly withdraws it" is their own abandonment of their schene. THE PRESIDENT: We will adjourn until halfpast one. (Wherupon, at 1200, a recess was taken.)

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Testimony of TOGO (T. 35,687-88).
Testimony of YAMAMOTO (T. 26,065) and TOGO (T. 35,704)
Exhibit 2,949 (T. at 26,093). 359. 360.

AFTERNOON SESSION

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The Tribunal met, pursuant to recess, at 1330.

MAKSHAL OF THE COULT: The International

Military Tribunal for the Far East is now resumed.

THE PRESIDENT: Major Blakeney.

MI. BLAKENEY: Page 191, Section 73.

A last event to be noted before we come to the end of the negotiations is the message which President Roosevent sent, on the night of 6 December in Washington, to the Emperor of Japan. Only one or two points in connection with this message require discussion. First is that of its probable effect had it not been delayed, in reaching the Emperor, until the war was actually commencing. The message was sent with the professed purpose of seeing whether the Emperor would not, joining with the President, "give thought in this definite emergoncy to ways of dispelling the dark clouds:" the concrete suggestion contained (by inference) in it is again that of withdrawal of Japanese forces from Indo-China, in return for United States guarantee (to which the Governments of the Netherlands Indies, Malaya, Thai and China would be asked to subscribe) of the security of that

(362. Ex. 1245-J, T. 10825) (363. Id. T. 10829)

364 colony. Asserting in their opening statement that, "had it been delivered to the Emperor at once, (it) might have changed the course of history", the prosecution now in summation recognize the obvious fact that "in the light of previous events there was nothing to be hoped for in sending this message." of neutralization of Indo-China had been proposed by the United States, and rejected, in July; it had been proposed by the Japanese Ambassadors in Washington, and rejected, in November. The reasons which in November rendered the proposal inadequate to effect a solution of Japanese-American problems in general, existed yet in December. Neutralization of Indo-China still in December left the China problem unsettled, the freezing or assets in full force. President Roosevelt made no proposal for settlement of those or other outstanding problems; he did not suggest further negotiations on any basis whatever; he hinted at no concession which might be made by the United States. Neutralization of Indo-China might have served the American purpose, of relieving the threat which was felt from Japanese troops in Indo-China, but it offered no relief to Japan from the conditions which she considered to (364. Id. T. 10828-29) (365. T. 9312) (366. Summation, \$G-139, T. 39686)

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be driving her to war in self-defense--the inexorable pressure of the economic blockade, the drain of the China Affair. The President's proposal, coming to Tokyo on the night of 7 December 1941, offering no solution for the over-all situation, could be of no assistance.

The message, however, was actually received in the Japanese Central Telegraph Office at noon on 7 December; and, as has been mentioned, the prosecution were once of the mind to assert that its effect would have been different had delivery to the Emperor not been delayed until night. How the contents of the President's telegram which were the same at noon and at midnight, could have had any different or greater effect twelve or fifteen hours earlier must remain a mystery. The fact is, of course, that the message was the sort of document which governments send for the purpose of putting their positions on record, no more. Mr. Ballantine conceded that the State Department "thought that the chances were very slim that it would accomplish anything"; and it was actually sent at 9 o'clock in the evening of the day on which at 3 o'clock the State Department had seen the message advising that Japan's final note (with which negotiations would be (367. T. 10969)

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"practically dropped") was on its way.

74. In any event, there is nothing to conneet any of the defendants, or indeed any Japanese Governmont officials, with the delaying of the presidential message. The proof is clear and undisputed that this message -- and others, the delay being applicable to all "foreign telegrams" alike -- was held up in the Ministry of Communications on order of the Army General Staff, and that the Foreign Ministry not only had no knowledge of it until a copy of it was delivered to the Foreign Minister after midnight by the American Ambassador, but made every effort, after learning of press reports that such a message was being sent, to locate it. (The Foreign Ministry had no knowledge also of the delaying of foreign telegrams.) The prosecution rely upon the statement of the witness SHIMAO, that he knew, "certainly before 6:00 P.M. when I left the office, and I think some time between four and six P.M. of the contents of the message." The statement is demonstrably without probative value. witness says that his affidavit is based upon his diary; the diary shows the entry "it is reported that President (368. Ex. 1193, T. 10442) (374. T. 10571)

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^{(369.} Testimony of Ballantine, T. 10970-76) (370. Testimony of SHIRAO, Tateki, T. 10569) (371. Testimony of KASE, Toshikazu, T.26167, and KAMEYAMA, Kazuji, T. 26186) (372. Testimony of TOGO, T. 35730)

Roosevelt highhandedly sent a personal message to His Majesty and moreover, disclosed the strength of the Japanese troops stationed in French Indo-China, the movement of the Japanese convoy, etc." affidavit the witness remembered that "Colonel TOMURA of the War Ministry (it proved later to be the General Staff) was telling me the contents of the telegram probably by 4 o'clock . . "; but on cross-examination he admitted that "my momory was foggy and I couldn't remember exactly what happened, therefore I put it down that I may have heard it from Colonel TOMURA" (he did not put it down that he "may have heard it"). If we compare the diary entry with the press report, already available in Tokyo in the morning, of the State Department announcement of the sending of the message by the President, the source of SHIRAO's knowledge is readily evident. The State Department had announced. as reported by ambassador NOMURA to the Foreign Ministry, that "the President had dispatched a personal telegram to His Majesty the Emperor. The contents of the message are unknown, but it is generally assumed that it concerns the reinforcement of troops in French 375. Ex. 1226, T. 10604) 376. T. 10584)

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Testimony of KASE, T. 26167, and TOGO, T. 35727)

Indo-China and the advance into Thailand, in view of the simultaneous disclosure by the Department, based on information received, that in addition to one hundred twenty-five thousand troops already stationed in French Indo-China, two corps were moving this morning into the Gulf of Siam . . "

Exactly what SHIRAO heard-but not what the contents of the President's message proved to be!

Finally, the prosecution allege (without citing any evidence in support of the statement) that "notice of the message was broadcast by radio in Japan at 3 in the afternoon. If this be true--which is probable -- it could account for SHIRAO's knowledge. if he had any, for that of Colonel TOMURA (if it was he from whom SHIRAO heard it, if he did hear it) and for that of "the conspirators". It has not been denied that the Foreign Ministry, and perhaps other branches of the Government, know of the fact of the sending of the message; much testimony was indeed given to detail the action taken as a result of acquisition of that knowledge. But from the fact of the alleged radio broadcast announcing the sending of the telegram the prosecution go on to the egregious non sequitur that "there can be no doubt that its contents were known

(380. Ex. 2962, T. 26169) (381. Summation, 8G-138, T. 39685)

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to the conspirators by 1800" -- that is, the contents of the President's message had been broadcast? At all events, this radio broadcast giving knowledge of the contents of the message destroys at once "the conspirators'" motive for delaying the message itself and any inference of guilty knowledge of theirs if they did know its contents "not later than 1800".

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The Japanese-American negotiations, which had in fact been ended by the Hull Note, were formally terminated only after the war had commenced, by service of the final Japanese note, of declaration of war. This document having been analyzed and the peculiar circumstances surrounding its late delivery discussed elsewhere, those matters need not be dwelt upon here. one or two additional points, however, require some attention, a brief recapitulation of some of the evidence being therefore necessary.

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The final note was drawn and prepared in accordance with the agreed opinions of all participants in the Liaison Conference; the time for its delivery had been decided by the High Command, and approved by

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(382. <u>Ibid</u>.) 8815-22, T.42439-64

24 25 (383. Summation for the defense, Section "E", "On Some Questions of International Law", \$815-22, T.42439 (384. Testimony of YAMAMOTO, T. 26125) (385. Testimony of YAMAMOTO, T. 26126-27, MUTO, T. 33174-75, TOGO, T. 35716, 35721-22, and TANABE, T. 35567)

the Liaison Conference upon the assurance that the time so set would allow a sufficient interval before commencement of hostilities. The Foreign Ministry took the necessary steps to insure the delivery of the message to the United States at the agreed time, steps dictated by prudence to avoid premature disclosure but based upon calculations, of the time necessary for deciphering and typing, which proved remarkably accurate. That in the end the message was delivered late -- more than an hour after the time instructed by the Foreign Ministry to the Embassy -- is shown by all the evidence to have been the result of neither malice nor negligence of any defendant, but on the contrary of the most criminal recklessness in the Embassy in Washington. It is nevertheless necessary to advert to some of the inferences which the prosecution, attempting in desperation to sustain their cherished theory of a conspiracy to insure late delivery of that document, propose should be drawn from the evidence.

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76. After conceding that the Embassy in Washington had not put itself in that state of vigilance

(386. Testimony of YAMAMOTO, T. 26096, 26127-28, TANABE,

T. 35567, and TOGO, T. 35722)
(387. Testimony of MUTO, T. 33176, TANABE, T. 35567, and TOGO, T. 35706, 35721--and see \$80 of his affidavit, T. 35723-24, 35848-52, 35912--cf. T. 36141)

(387a. Testimony of KAMEYAMA, T. 26186)

(387b. Testimony of YUKI, Shiroji, T. 26207)

obviously appropriate to the times, the prosecution contend notwithstanding that the Foreign Ministry was derelict in having taken the obvious precaution of ordering the declaration of war prepared for delivery without the use of typists; thereby, it is suggested, making upon the non-professional typists of the diplomatic staff demands which they could not be expected to meet in time. (The prosecution say that preparation of the note was left to be made by "members of the Embassy who were admittedly incompetent as typists." The evidence on the contrary is that the one who typed the note has the one senior member of the Embassy staff "who could operate a typewriter at all decently", which is submitted to be the opposite of confessed incompetence.) As against this interesting theory, the evidence introduced on behalf of the defense shows that, after ample warning of its impending arrival and importance, the mossage began coming in at the Embessy in the afternoon of 6 December, and was except for its last seventy words deciphered by midnight, at which (387c. Summation, \$G-146, T. 39695)
(388. Testimony of YUKI, T. 26211-12)
(389. The "pilot mossage" alerting the Embassy for arrival of the declaration of war had been "deciphered by noon of 6 December (Saturday)". Testimony of YUKI, T. 26209)
(390. Exs. 1216, T. 10534, and 1217, T. 10536)
(391. Pt. 14 of the Message, which alone did not arrive night of the 6th, consists of 70 words. See Ex. on the night of the 6th, consists of 70 words. See Ex. 2966, T. 26198, not read, which is Part 14.)
(392. ". . . the deciphering of the first 13 parts being finished before midnight." Tes. of YUKI, T. 26211)

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time typing might and but for inexplicable negligence would have commenced (the typing of the first eight or nine parts of the thirteen might in fact have started at 7 o'clock or even earlier). The typing, when finally undertaken the following morning, required even under pressure of the dawning realization of the gravity of the negligence only some two hours -- from about 9 to 11 o'clock -- for parts 1 to 13. (On the ground that a clean copy was needed, this was completely retyped 9 after 11 o'clock.) That is, had typing commenced even 10 at midnight, all but the fourteenth part of the message 11 12 would have been ready by 2 o'clock of the morning --13 or, if we allow for typing two drafts, by 4 o'clock. 14 The two errors which had to be corrected -- it has not 15 yet been suggested that these were made deliberately 16 by Tokyo to insure more delay -- could then have been 17 corrected in good time, for the telegrams of correction 18 had arrived and been deciphered by 11 a.m. (These two 19 errors, which were considered to make necessary the 20 retyping of several pages of the document, consisted 21 (393. ". . . the first 8 or 9 parts had already been deciphered by dinner-time (about 7 p.m.) that evening." 22 d. T. 26210) 23 394. <u>Id</u>. T. 26212-13) Id. T. 26213) 24 T. T. 25

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of a change of one word and addition of one line.
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    The corrections could obviously have been inserted in
    ink in the original draft between 11 and 1 o'clock.)
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    Finally, the fourteenth part was deciphered by 12:20
    or 12:30 p.m., and could have been typed -- seventy
    words! Eight lines of this text -- by anyone in time
    for 1 o'clock delivery.
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            Testimony of KAMEYAMA, T. 26191-92)

Id. T. 26201)

Testimony of YUKI, T. 26214)
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But, we are told -- "most important of all" -the Foreign Ministry gave to the fourteenth part of the message " a priority of only 'very important', while giving other messages of much less importance urgent classification." Such a complete distortion of the evidence would be ludicrous were it not so serious a matter. What are the facts? First, that there is no evidence that the fourteenth part was or was not indicated as "Urgent". However that may be, other messages were classified as "Urgent" -- in cipher! classification itself is in cipher. On this message "appeared the plain English phrase 'Very Important!" With all other messages the cable-clerks must decipher enough of the preliminary matter to discover whether they were dealing with "urgent", "priority" or "routine" material; not so with this one. They had to decipher not one word of this fourteenth part to discover its supreme urgency; it leaped out at them, from the page of the meaningless figures of cipher-groups, that one intelligible word in the whole sheaf of papers, that plain and arresting warning, "Very Important!" It is the only "plain English" -- or indeed un-enciphered -phrase discoverable in the whole diplomatic correspondence; 401. Summation, §G-164 (Tr. 39,696). 402. See the fourteenth part, Ex. 2966 (Tr. 26,198).

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it might as well have been written in red, it could not
   be missed. Is the classification "urgent" the higher
   one in such case? But if, as appears to have happened.
   the cable-clerks did by some incredible stupidity defer
   the message labelled "Very Important!" to others less
            , is there any fault in Tokyo? Part 14 duly
   arrived over the air-waves in the United States at
   3:05 a.m., Washington time
                                , and was deciphered by
   the United States Navy and delivered beginning at 8:15
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   in the morning
                   . What the American Navy, working
   under the added handicap of having to break a secret
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   foreign cipher, could do, the Japanese Embassy with
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   ordinary diligence could have done (Part 14 arrived
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   at the Embassy "by about 7 a..."
                                      ). It is interesting
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   to note that the actual time required for all decipher-
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   ing and typing is well within the estimate of the Chief
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   of the Cable Section of the Foreign Ministry -- the
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   estimate upon the basis of which he ordered the times
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  403. Testimony of YKI (Tr. 26,212).
404. Fx. 2,968 (Tr. 26,230).
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  405. Ex. 2,969 (Tr. 26,232)
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   406. Testimony of KAMFYAMA (Tr. 26,201).
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407 for transmission of these several cablegrams Every detail worked out as he had planned it -- every detail save one: that he had not counted on the Embassy's bland violation of the Foreign Ministry's order to keep cable-clerks on duty at all times, and to prepare' this document beforehand for delivery obedience to either order, all would still have been well. Had only the typing commenced on the night of the 6th, the cable-clerks might have made holiday from midnight to morning and the job been finished in time. Had those clerks stayed on duty as ordered; and had they then even consumed the three hours and a half that on the following morning they devoted to the leisurely deciphering of half-a-dozen simple messages; and even had the novice typist OKUMURA still been 407. Id. (Tr. 26,195-201). A reeding of KAMEYAM's testimony in connection with Exhibits 2968 and 2969, showing the times of receipt and of delivery by the Navy of the various messages, and of the testimony of YUKI (Tr. 26,207-15), showing the times of completion of deciphering and, inferentially, of arrival at the Embassy, is most instructive as showing the remarkable accuracy of his assumptions, which err only slightly on the conservative side. 408. "The Embassy had been instructed to the effect that there should always be some clerks on duty in the cable section. Moreover, an instruction had been sent to the effect that the document and all the necessary preparations were to be made ready before-hand (Ix. 1216)." Testimony of KAMEYAMA (Tr. 26199). The members of the cable section "returned to their respective lodgings before dawn, leaving a duty officer . . At from 9:30 to 10 they had all gathered in the office. . " Testimony of YUKI (Tr. 26211-12).

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unwilling to defer his night of sleep to the fate of his Empire -- Ambassador NOMURA might yet have kept 409 his appointment with Hull and with history. By such trifles is the destiny of nations shaped.

What becomes of the conspiracy in Tokyo to bring about delay?

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CONCLUSIONS

If our analysis of the negotiations has been sound, stating the conclusions need not detain us long. Our conclusions on these narrow, limited issues must, however, be briefly related to certain of the broader espects of the case, with particular reference to the positions adopted by the prosecution. A reading of the prosecution's summations as a whole must convince one that the entire case proceeds upon a post Soc, ergo propter hoc principle: The Japanese Imperial Conference decisions of 2 July, 6 September and 409. By 8:15 a.m. the United States Navy had completed deciphering, among other messages, the fourteenth part and the telegrams of correction (Exhibit 2969, Tr. The Embassy cable-clerks should have completed them at least as early; so that by 8:15 the entire text as corrected would have been ready for typing. Allowing for the typing the two hours it retually took, a final draft could then have been prepared by 11 o'clock (no recopying to make corrections then being necessary), even had the work started only at 9, as in fact it did. (It should moreover be noted that according to the estimate of KAMEYAMA -- who, of course, is an expert -- the lot of these messages received in Washington after midnight of 6-7 December could have been deciphered with one machine in two hours or so. Tr. 26,198.

5 November 1941 decided upon preparations for war against the United States and the British Empire, and, in certain contingencies, unon war; the war came; ergo, it was never intended that it should fall out otherwise. Having this premise in mind, we trace out the negotiations; each Japanese proposal must, of course, have been narrower than the last, since the negotiations were but a comouflage; it is monstrous to say that Japan ever made any concession, she having started out with her fixed conception of what she must have; if Japan offered a concession in the course of the negotiations, it cannot have been sincere, since ex hypothesi she was determined to gain her full demands by war if need be. Now, this sort of thing does not advance the case. The merest reading of the 6 September Imperial Conference decision, as put into evidence by , suffices to destroy the prosecution themselves the basic premise: it was not carried out; the study of the negotiations which we have just made will, it is submitted, dispel any suspicion that the conclusions ere correct.

The prosecution have, as has been men-78. tioned, proposed the test of whether Japan made concessions in her negotiations with the United States as 410. Ex. 779 (Tr. 7,904).

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the measure of her desire for peace. It fully annears from the evidence which has been reviewed that there was on the Japanese side no failure of comprehension that "negotiation" is "give-and- ake". The original Japanese position was that to those who would understand her, she would make concessions even at the expense of logic. We have seen the extent to which concessions were made during seven months of negotiations. Of course, there is no pretence that she conceded every point; but her concessions were many, and substantial, and sufficient to furnish incontrovertible proof of a conciliatory disposition. At America's request, Japan had shown readiness to render her Tripartite Pact obligation a dead letter. At American insistence, Japan abandoned her claims to special commercial and trade rights in the Asiatic area, agreeing to share access to those markets equally with the United States. Japan gradually contracted her minimum claims of what she must have out of the China Affair which -- rightly or wrongly -- she had fought at vast sacrifiece for over four years. Conformably to the Imerican demand, Japan was willing by retreat to undo the damage done to relations by her advance into southern Indo-China, restoring the status quo ante.

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These are not all; we may pick out from many others a few minor points on which Japan made concessions during the negotiations. The subject of "political stabilization in the Pacific area," for example, had been one to which a clause was devoted in the various proposals from the original one of 9 Arril. It assumed various suises: first a pledge of non-acquiescence in transfer of Pacific territory to a European Power then a guarantee of the independence of the Philippine 10 Islands on condition of their permanent neutraliza-; a statement of peaceful intention and denial finally, in the Japanese of territorial aspirations 25 September draft, a pledge not to resort to measures 14 jeopardizing "stabilization" of "the situation in the Southwestern Pacific area" . The United States had, 15 16 in accordance with its position that any agreement to 17 be made should be applicable to the entire Pacific, 18 suggested the emendment of this draft; but nothing had been done toward it when the TOJO Cabinet took office. When it had been decided by that Cabinet to resume 22 negotictions on the basis of the 25 September proposal, 23 the Foreign Minister suthorized the amendment desired 24 411. Ex. 1059 (Tr. 9,859) 412. Ex. 1070 (Tr. 9,897) 412. Ex. 1070 (Tr. 9,897). 413. Ex. 1078 (Tr. 9,944). 414. Ex. 1245E, (Tr. 10,790).

by the United States , and the Secretary of State was handed a memorandum to that effect on 17 November As another small illustration, the Japanese proposal of 12 May contained a clause which had immediately suggested difficulties to the Department of State: "Japanese immigration to the United States shall recetye amicable consideration -- on a basis of equality with other nationals and freedom from discrimination" . This clause, as the result of American objection, was deleted and appeared in no subsequent Japanese proposal.

79. Another interesting evidence, not yet discussed, of the Japanese desire to conclude a peaceful settlement, was the proposed meeting between Premier Prince KONOYF and President Roosevelt. Such a conference had been a feature of the original draft pro-, but had been omitted in the first Japanese posal and thereafter. After the suscounter-proposal pension of negotiations in July, however, Prince KONOYF conceived the idea of proposing such a meeting in the hope that it might produce the results which negotiations through normal diplomatic channels had failed 415. Jx. 2938 (Tr. 26,025)

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^{416.} Ex. 2939 (Tr. 26026). 417. Ex. 1070 (Tr. 9,898). 418. Ex. 1059 (Tr. 9,860). 419. Ex. 2871 (Tr. 25,691).

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There was much discussion of the matter, which
 1 heed not be touched on here; it is sufficient for now
 2 to note that when Ambassador NOMURA first conveyed the
 3 suggestion to President Roosevelt it was received
                            , but that the United States
  with some enthusiasm
  soon began to say that the meeting would be useless
  unless the pending questions were in effect decided in
            . It was at the time widely felt -- as for
   advance
  example by Ambassadors Grew
                                   and Craigie
  Prince KONOYE, by being able to give direct to the
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   President far broader assurances and commitments than
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   could be done through the diplomatic process, was
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   offering an opportunity for peaceful settlement which
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   it would be folly to reject. For some reason --
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  Mr. Ballantine gives several
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  ment did not agree, and the meeting never materialized.
  The significance, however, as a token of desire for
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  peace of a Japanese Premier's being ready to leave
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  his country on such a startlingly unprecedented mis-
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  sion will not be lost on the Tribunal, as it was not
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  lost on the experienced American and Eritish representa-
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   tives in Tokvo. Ambassador Grew urged that the proposal
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420. Ex. 2888 (Tr. 25,776).

24 421. Exs. 2893 (Tr. 25,794) and 2894 (Tr. 25,798).

422. Ix. 2837 (Tr. at 25,385).
  422. Ix. 2837 (Tr. at 25,385).
423. Fx. 2908 (Tr. 25,847)
424. Tr. 10,775-77.
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"not be turned aside without very prayerful consider-
     ation. . . The good which may flow from a meeting
     between Prince KONOE and President Roosevelt is
     incalculable" . To Ambassador Craigie it was
     "the best chance of bringing about a just settlement
     of Far Eastern issues, which has occurred since my
    arrival in Japan", "a chance which it would be
    inexcusable folly to let slip." 427
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   425. Ex. 2892 (Tr. 25,791)
426. Ex. 2908 (Tr. at 25,850)
427. <u>Id</u>. (Tr. at 25,852).
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It is, however, on the negotiations after 80. the advent of the TOJO Cabinet that the prosecution concentrate their fire. This being the period in which Japan's greatest concessions were made, we are happy to meet them there. To go back a moment, it will be remembered that when the original craft proposal of 9 April had arrived in Tokyo, the consensus of the Liaison Conference was that negotiations on the basis of it should be undertaken with the objects of putting the speediest possible end to the China Affair, of avoiding -- not of facilitating, of avoiding -- a war with America, and of preventing extension of the European war to the Pacific. By October these necessities were even more urgent, and consequently the really basic concessions were made after that time.

The major concessions on the economic 429 430 activities and China questions were, as we have seen, made during this time; during the TOJO Cabinet's days for the first time Japan abandoned such long-standing claims, offensive to the United States, as those of the right to indefinite troop-stationing in China and of her special position in trade and commerce arising out of propinquity to China; now for the first

^{428.} Ex. 2866 (Tr. at 26,694-96).

^{429. &}lt;u>Supra</u>, \$54. 430. <u>Supra</u>, \$55-56

time she offered an immediate retreat by withdrawal of troops, from southern Indo-China. During this period Mr. Hull's cherished ideal of world-wide free trade was accepted by Japan to be applied between the parties, as was the principle of political stabilization throughout the Pacific area. These things show the absurdity of the prosecution's position that the "cabinet under TOJO's leadership proceeded to carry out the policy of September 6"; it is simply untrue, and utterly without foundation in the evidence.

But, say the prosecution, the Imperial Conference of 5 November decided on war, and that decision was carried out; hence there can have been no bona fide negotiation thereafter. The basic concessions made after 5 November -- by the proposals adopted on that day and otherwise -- of course defeat this argument. A conditional decision for war is a conditional decision; that the condition is later realized does not convert the original decision into one unconditional ab initio. It is true that the condition so fell out that there was war; but the evidence snows earnest efforts for the success of the negotiations meanwhile, which would have nullified the conditional decision.

431. Summation, §G-115 (Tr. 39,654).

These facts have been artfully codged by the prosecution, who find it more pleasant to repeat, post hoc, orgo . . . There are other unpalatable facts. It is interesting, for example, to note that it is nowhere shown by evidence nor contended in argument that the United States ever in the course of the negotiations made any concession whatsoever. On the contrary, in this game of give-and-take the United States position is proudly stated to have been adamant from first to last -- it was ultimative. By 21 June the State Department had reached "the end of the thinking out and discussions" of the subject matter, and on that date presented what was "up to the time of our November 26 proposal, our last complete proposal." Negotiate? Yes -- but "our attitude on that was the same from the beginning to the end"; "from the very beginning of the conversations we told the Japanese that everything must conform to our fixed principles . . . never talked to them in terms of the concessions we would make from our principles"; "we would be willing providing it conformed to our fixed principles." Is this negotiation, or is it ultimatum? Testimony of Ballantine (Tr. 10,884). Id. (Tr. 10,998). 432. (Tr. 11,159

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81. The Japanese proposals "A" and "B" of 5 November have been repeatedly alleged in crossexamination and in summation, to have been final, the last word of Japan. America's last word, of course -- as Fr. Ballantine has said -- came in June; but Japan's is not shown to have come at all. Final, yes, these proposals, in the sense that they represented the general outline of matters in which concession could be made; but those were exactly the matters of interest to the United States. What the "last-word" argument overlooks is the fact, well established by the evidence, that there was an understanding between Foreign Minister TOGO and Premier TOJO that if the United States manifested interest in or receptiveness to those proposals the matter of further concession might be taken up. We know now that the United States showed no interest; but they did not know then that she would not -- rather, it is submitted, they had every reason to suppose that she would. There is no proof whatever that this intention was not genuine; on the contrary, the far-reaching concessions already made indicate the great probability that there might well have been still further yielding in response to any suggestion of an attitude of reciprocal give-and-take. The evidence being against the prosecution

position that the TOJO Cabinet decided on war at the outset and never seriously made any effort to avoid it by negotiation, they have proved and now argue a number of irrelevant matters which might be supposed to have some prejudicial effect. An example is the reliance -- naive if it were not disingenuous -- which they profess to place on Ambassador NOMURA's presentation of his resignation at the time of the change of government. That ambassadors do resign with the administration which appointed them the Tribunal knows, if the prosecution do not; but the prosecution profess to have discovered in the Admiral's request to be allowed to resign the proof that he thought the TOJO Cabinet one under which successful termination of the negotiations was hopeless. It might be supposed that what the Ambassador thought was in any event of small interest, he being by the prosecution's standard -- as a high-office holder of Japan -- a fellow conspirator of the defendants. He appears, however, to have had psychic powers: he knew the situation in Tokyo notwithstanding he had been in Washington, and not in Japan, for some nine months when the TOJO Cabinet came into office; he had not attended the meetings of the Liaison Conference or Imperial Conference where Japan's basic policies were deliberated and decided,

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he knew nothing of the Imperial Conference decision of 6 September, with its limitations upon the scope of Japanese diplomatic action; he was unaware that General TOJO, receiving the Imperial mandate to form a cabinet, was directed to undertake reconsideration of that and that some members of his cabinet had decision. accepted their portfolios upon the sole condition that that should be done sincerely; he did not and could not know what the attitude of the new cabinet toward the negotiations would be, for the cabinet itself did not yet know. If his submission of a resignation in those circumstances evidences a psychic sense, it was one which operated better at long range than on the morning of 7 December, when -- after being told repeatedly to destroy his codes and code machines, after being told repeatedly that the fate of his Empire hung on the success or failure of his efforts, after being told that the message which he had by then already received would in effect rupture the negotiations, 436. Ex. 1154 (Tr. at 10,292); testimony of TOJO (Tr. 36,308-9). 437. Testimony of KAYA (Tr. 30,648-49), SHIMADA (Tr. 34,653-55), TOGO (35,671-72) and TOJO (Tr. 36,308-9, 36,314-15).
437a. Exs. 1211 (Tr. 10,524) and 2974 (Tr. 26,258-65); Testimony of KAYA (Tr. 30,648-49), SHIMADA testimony of KAMEYAMA (Tr. 26,197) 437b. E.g. exs. 2924 (Tr. 25,960), 2925 (Tr. 25,964), 2926 (Tr. 25,971), 1174 (Tr. 10,356) and 1178 (Tr. 10,380).

437c. Ex. 1193 (Tr. 10,442).

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after receiving cablegrams of greeting and farewell
     from his colleagues in Tokyo -- when, after all this,
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     he remained the one man in Tokyo or Washington who up
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    437d. Testimony of KAMEYAMA (Tr. 26,197) and YUKI (Tr. 26,212).
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to noon of 7 December did not know that war was coming. Of course, his telegram of resignation contains no implication such as the prosecution attach to it; it is but the normal, humbly-phrased Japanese form of submission of his post to the incoming cabinet for its disposition.

Another curious point is the prosecution's emphasis upon the dispatch to Washington of Ambassador KURUSU, which is alleged to have been a "camouflage," designed to conceal war preparations. What a preposterous position this is needs no argument, for the evidence speaks for itself. Admiral NOMURA himself had long before requested that he be given professional dip-I matic assistance and had named Mr. KURUSU specifically Foreign Minister TOYODA had at one time made preparations What more natural, so soon as there to send someone. were new proposals, and negotiations were to begin again, than that a career diplomat should be sent? And, natural or not, how could it be camouflage? Foreign Minister TOGO told Ambassador Grew that Ambassador KURUSU was taking no new proposals; Ambassador NOMURA 442 and Ambassador told President Roosevelt the same; KURUSU himself after his arrival suggested as much to 442. Ex. 2927 (Tr. 25,985). Ex. 2921 (Tr. 25,952). Ex. 2922 (Tr. 25,953). Exs. 2918 (Tr. 25,927) and 2923 (Tr. at 25,958).

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the Prosident. Perspicuous camouflage, sending a man who says, "I bring nothing but a new point of view" -- and brings nothing else! We may let Mr. Ballantine dispose for us of the whole question of Japan's negotiations as "camouflage."

"Q And the negotiations, or the appearance of negotiations, were designed, did you think, to conceal the military preparations?

"A Not to conceal military preparations.
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Those had been obvious since July . . ."

Another of these substitutes for evidence of

Japanese determination from the outset on war is the

prosecution's insistence on the fact that the naval task

force which later struck at Pearl Harbor was setting

sail from Hitokappu Bay on about 25 November, which

was also the day fixed some time earlier by the Foreign

Ministry for the Ambassadors in Washington to conclude

their negotiation of an agreement. The reason for this

so-called deadline has been explained by the Foreign

Minister, Mr. TOGO, in his testimony, which shows it

to have had no connection with naval operations, of which
he and the government had no knowledge. No evidence

tends to contradict this testimony, the prosecution

443. Ex. 2942 (Tr. at 26,037).
444. Tr. 10,965.
445. Testimony of TOGO (Tr. 36,099). The correctness of this explanation is accepted by the prosecution, see Summation SWW-21 (Tr. 41,902).
446. Id. (Tr. 35,702).

contention that there was a connection being based solely on the coincidence of date. What is nowhere explained is why, if the "deadline" was dependent upon the naval movements, it should have been the day of the fleet's departure. If the "deadline" had been the day, say, before the attack, one could appreciate the connection, there would be logic in the argument of circumstances; not when it is a fortnight before. The "deadline," in any event, was subsequently changed, at a time when it appeared that there might be a possibility thus making it fully of agreement on a modus vivendi, apparent that there was no connection with fleet operations. It is no secret that operational preparations had been carried forward concurrently with the diplomatic negotiations since the 6 September decision, but those preparations, based upon a at the latest; conditional decision to declare war in future, in no way bear upon the sincerity with which negotiations were simultaneously being conducted.

82. A further word must be said of the United States' attitude in the negotiations, and we have done. It will be apparent from study of the conversations and proposals that the American position, never

447. Ex. 1183 (Tr. 10,399). 448. Testimony of TOGO (Tr. 35,702).

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conciliatory ("we never talked to them in terms of the concessions we would make"), stiffened perceptibly from August. This was the month of the Atlantic Conwhere joint British-American action against ference, As the negotia-Japan undoubtedly was on the agenda. tions progressed, moreover, American doubts of Japanese America had, as we now know, sincerity multiplied; overreached herself in attending, not to what Japan's Ambassadors said to her, but to the grotesque parodies which she thought were the Ambassadors' instructions. It is difficult to escape the conclusion that from this time, at all events, the United States had determined on yielding nothing even at the risk of war. Even before, there had been baffling moods -- as when the proposal for neutralization of French Indo-China was made on 24 July, and Japanese assets frozen on the following day without any answer's having been awaited. But from August the United States' position began to shift rapidly and inexplicably. Where before the recognition of Manchoukuo had been "a question between China and Japan," America started prescribing peace terms without consultation with China -- and those terms Ex. 2322 (Tr. 17,465). 449. Evidence to this effect was rejected by the Tribunal (Tr. 26,382-85). 451. Testimony of Ballantine (Tr. 11,014). 452. Id. (Tr. 10,999).

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the terms of total defeat. Originally America's desire had been only for such an agreement with Japan as would assure her own interests, questions affecting other countries being left for settlement with them; now the United States uncertook to secure the neutralization of French territories and Thailand without a "by your leave." America mentioned her hopes for world-wide freedom of commercial opportunity; when Japan offered to make them contractual, her meaning was "unclear."

The evidence seems to suggest two explanations for this state of affairs, neither being such as to convict Japan of having blocked an agreement. One was 453 suggested above, in referring to Ambassador Grew's recommendations to the State Department on 6 September that the opportunity of a KONOE-Roosevelt meeting be seized. He had said, it will be remembered, that "it is obvious . . . that no Japanese undertakings whether oral or in written form can be accepted as giving a complete guarantee that such undertakings can or will becarried out . . "; it was a question whether the commitments, if implemented, would be satisfactory.

Japan never got the chance to implement any commitment.

453. Supra, \$33. 454. Ex. 2896 (Tr. 25,807). 455. Testimony of Ballantine (Tr. 10,992). Her offers of commitments came more and more to be treated as valueless because they might not be implemented after being given. The meaning of her most basic concessions of principle was never explored; it was assumed that they could not be sincere. As America came to feel more ready for war -- we may surmise -her position became the more uncompromising, her interest in the negotiations waned ever more, until at last the State Department was willing to abandon untried its own proposal of modus vivendi, which Mr. Hull had thought might have perhaps a one-in-three chance of acceptance, for the Hull Note which was considered "unlikely" of Why, then, did America negotiate? acceptance. main difficulty appears to be that, while the Japanese want speed and cannot yet afford to go beyond generalizations, the Americans seem to be playing for time and to demand the utmost precision in definition before agreeing to any contract for a step of rapprochement." Though it sound like an echo of the Japanese complaints of the American attitude in the negotiations, Ambassador Sir Robert Craigie speaking. Can his analysis be challenged? Testimony of Ballantine (Tr. 10,992). Id. (Tr. 10,952). Ex. 2908 (Tr. 25,849). Ex. 2918 (Tr. at 25,930).

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"Playing for time"? The whole theory of the prosecution of this case has been that Japan, her civilian and military officials, the defendants -- the "conspirators" -- conducted the Japanese-American negotiations, in mala fide, nefariously, playing for time to prepare for war.

"We wanted to keep alive the spark of peace to the last split second. We wanted to clutch at every straw that might make possible the continuance of peace. Surely there was nothing inconsistent between that objective and giving our armed forces and those of our friends time to prepare adequately for self
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defense," snys Mr. Ballantine. Nor for Japan?

This Tribunal cannot await the verdict of history, but must now determine whether it were not a travesty upon the truth to say that America was forced into a war with Japan.

THE PRESIDENT: Colonel Warren.

IR. WARREN: If the Tribunal please:

In presenting the summation of the case for the accused DOHIHARA, it is not the intention of his counsel to either affirm or deny the motivating

459. Tr. 11,010.
460. Note that as early as 27 November Chief of Staff
Harshall was advising Hawaii and other outlying commands
that "if hostilities cannot be avoided the United
States desires that Japan commit the first overt act."
Exhibits 2860-62 (Tr. 25,620-21).

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influences brought to bear which ultimately resulted in any particular incident with which the accused are

generally charged with having perpetrated. assume the realistic view that such instances as the Manchurian Incident and the China Incident did occur. While we cannot, and do not concur with the prosecution in their contention concerning the various incidents, their causation and effect, we must recognize that the record is so voluminous that any attempt upon our part to analyze the whole would but obscure the vital problem with which we, as the defense counsel for DOHIHARA, are concerned: That is, what, if any, was the connection our client had with the various incidents to which the prosecution has attempted to connect him? It has been our contention throughout the trial that the position of General DOHIHARA has been highly overrated by the prosecution; that his influence was small and that he was never in a position to direct or control any person who held a position of political strength, sufficient to affect the destinies of Japan. It is true that he did appear on the scene on several occasions but in each instance, as will be shown from our further summation, he appeared as a subordinate officer under the command of his superior officers, with orders to perform a specific mission. In every instance appearing of record this fact will be borne out. No person could listen to the testimony in this case without arriving

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at the conclusion that the accused DOHIHARA has a great knowledge of the Chinese people, their customs, manners, peculiarities and whims. It was this factor, more than any other one thing, that brought to DOHIHARA the prominence which the prosecution has lavished upon him far beyond its actual importance. Some persons did have plans which they formulated, promulgated, and in many instances carried through to their ultimate conclusion. Some such plans undoubtedly could result in nothing except good; and some the prosecution has characterized as the machinations of departed brains, in which characterization incidentally we do not concur. When plans are formulated, it is necessary that certain means be provided with which to carry them . out; certain instrumentalities are needed for the conveyance of thoughts, demands and counter demands. When persons, who think up schemes and plan plans, happened to be in the armed forces, it is only natural that they should use as the instrumentality for carrying out their plans those who are subordinate to them. In this last category, DOHIHARA unquestionably fits.

Any defense counsel, in any case, will learn by bitter experience that the prosecution will distort the meaning of often harmless words so that they appear to have a sinister or hidden meaning. Therefore, anticipating that the prosecution may choose to misinterpret our use of the words "plans" and "schemes" in an attempt to show that we recognize, by their use, a conspiracy, let us now put their minds at ease. The words are used in their ordinary, everyday sense. The idea of a conspiracy between DOHIHARA and any of the accused, such as is alleged by the prosecution, has always appeared more than ridiculous to us and the prosecution has not presented any evidence which would effect our opinion in the least.

The Tribunal can take judicial knowledge that in every army of every nation here represented that one of the cardinal virtues of an army officer is to obey, without question and without hesitation, the orders of his superior officer. Yet, in not one single recorded instance do we find that the accused DOHIHARA ever initiated any action of his own, except incidental to carrying out his assigned mission. Every mission he undertook was upon orders of his superiors, and only after whatever plans there were had already been formulated, and we shall not overlook this fact in

supplying to the court proper references to the record. What we recognize as a virtue in our own citizens, we certainly should not condemn as a fault in our enemy.

For the purposes of this criminal prosecution, the accused DOHIHARA first applars upon the scene as the head of the Special Service Organization in the City of Mukden. However, the prosecution while admitting that this is true, also make vague reference to the many years DOHIHARA had spent in China, but since there is no evidence to that effect of a derogatory nature, it does not even dignify an answer.

We have already made reference to the fact that the prosecution often attempts to distort the meaning of words so as to give them a sinister effect not intended. Not only does this hold true of words, but it also holds true of facts. The prosecution attempts to make much of the fact that in a telegram, apparently originating with the Special Service Organization, to which DOHIHARA was attached, there appeared some words to the general effect that the names of DOHIHARA and ITAGAKI was something like the mention of a tiger and that the people turned pale. We have never contended, and never will contend, that there were no newspapers in China and Manchuria that did not dislike

General DOHIHARA. We have no doubt that some such 1 papers may have printed similar statements on occasions. 2 Why the prosecution would attempt, by their argument, 3 to have this Tribunal believe that the statement was the statement of the Special Services Organization, (Pros. Sum. P. BB-1) given in a bragging manner, is something we cannot understand. It is so far from 7 the truth and the recorded facts that it becomes fan-8 tastic; in fact, so fantastic that the defense never 9 even attempted to explain it by rebuttal evidence. 10 The document, which the prosecution refers to (Ex. 11 3177-A) was apparently of such little probative value 12 that even the President of the Tribunal questioned 13 C. (T. 28619). So little value did the 14 15 defense attach to it, in view of the explanations of 16 the witness AIZAWA, that we did not even press or 17 argue our objection to its introduction. (T.28620). 18 AIZAWA stated in substance, that the document in 19 question was one of the type where various questions 20 were put into political, economic and social categories 21 and that the subject pointed out; i. e., that the people 22 in Southern China, at the mention of the names DOHIHARA 23 and ITAGAKI turned pale, was in his opinion, an item 24 a. Pros. Sum. P. BB-1. c. T. 28619. b. Ex. 3177-A. d. T. 28620. 25

taken from the newspapers commenting on these two men; that the report so received from the newspapers was recorded in that part of the report. The witness then stated that DOHIHARA's name constantly appeared in newspapers attempting to connect him with conspiracies and plots of various kinds, but that as a matter of fact, during the years he served under General DOHI-HARA, there was not one iota of evidence of his participation in any such movements. (T. 28618;28619). There seems little doubt that the origin of the statement was from the newspapers and was not at all what the prosecution would have the Tribunal believe. As a matter of fact, the whole thing is reminiscent, in some respects, of the remarks of the prosecution some time ago concerning DOHIHARA as being the Lawrence of Manchuria. It just emphasizes again the attempt to convict by innuendo rather than evidence. Although the remark was made on more than one occasion, not one single word of evidence was ever introduced to substantiate them. Even so, supposing he had been called the Lawrence of Manchuria, we wonder if there might not have been in prior history another Lawrence whose deeds were of such greater magnitude as to cause a lesser constellation in the firmament of history to a. T. 28618; 28619.

become his namesake? Well, we dismiss the entire thing for what it is worth; a preposterous assumption of facts not substantiated by the evidence as broad as that evidence was permitted to be.

The prosecution state that DOHIHARA had spent eighteen years in China and that his situation there had won recognition of his superiors. (Pros. Sum. PP, BB-2). We have already recognized this fact. Every nation has its specialists in its State Departments and in its armies. The mere fact that a man might be a specialist has absolutely no significance. DOHIHARA, in his interrogation, admitted the fact, but b.

(T. 15723) while we admit that he did receive recognition from his superiors we should also like to point out that he was considered by them as a man of very mild character, with many friends among the Chinese.

(T. 19995). In this connection, it is rather interesting to note that the prosecution also recognize the fact that DOHIHARA was used by his superiors because of his special knowledge and thus bear out the defense's d. (Pros. Sum. PP, BB-2).

The prosecution attempts to make much of the fact of what they term to be an intimate relation between a. Pros. Sum. PP, BB-2.

c. T. 19995.
d. Pros. Sum. PP, BB-2.

the accused DOHIHARA and one QKAWA, who was adjudged by this Tribunal to be an incompetent. They contend that DOHIHARA was deeply involved in drafting a plan to set up a cabinet centering around the army with a more positive policy towards Manchuria and cite for their authority the testimony of OKAWA contained in (exhibit 2177-A), the minutes of the third trial of OKAWA held in the Tokyo Court of Appeals. It is singular that in their summation the prosecution admits that DOHIHARA was at the time at an outpost in China and that he was kept busy there. (Pros. Sum. PP, BB-2,3). There can be no question about this statement because although the prosecution does not say so, a scrutiny of the record will show that the incident referred to occurred after the Manchurian Incident, which took place on September 18, 1931, and the two were supposed to have been connected in some vague The incident finally became known as the October Incident. (T. 15585). General DOHIHARA was at that time the Mayor of Mukden. (Ex. 57, Lytton Report, P. 88). What the prosecution failed to point out was that at the time OKAWA gave the testimony in question, he was on trial for his own actions and was c. T. 15585. d. Ex. 57, Lytton Report, P. 88. a. Ex. 2177-A. b. Pros. Sum. PP, BB-2,3.

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attempting to vindicate himself.

They likewise neglected to remind the Tribunal of the manner in which the testimony concerning DOHIHARA was gotten from OKAWA. The prosecution, having failed to do so, it behooves us to analyze it. Prior to the incident complained of, neither the army nor the cabinet had a definite policy, (T. 15585), and the idea of the promulgation of the so-called October Incident had to be formulated in a short period of time.

of the Tribunal can varify our remarks by reading the b. (T. 15585-15586). OKAWA himself knew little about the plan or who was involved and at the best everything he had to say about it was little better than a guess on his part. At the time the controversal testimony was given by OKAWA, he was being examined by the Crief Justice of the Court and (T. 15577), when asked by the Chief Justice who it was who drafted the ultimate plan, the witness answered that he did not know. Ke was then asked if he did not know who was at the top of drafting the plan. He stated that he had an idea. At this point the Chief Justice then asked a. Te 15585.

b. T. 15585-15586.

the question which the prosecution insists involved the accused DOHIHARA. That question was, "Are SHIGETO, HASHIMOTO, ITAGAKI, and DOHIHARA involved?" and the witness answered, "Yes." In answer to the next question by the Chief Justice, he stated that he was the only civilian involved. The Chief Justice then made this observation, referring to DOHIHARA and the others mentioned in the previous question: "After all, they are satisfied with how things are now so what do they want to do?" The witness started his next answer with the words: "Their plan, I suppose " (T15587).

We invite the Tribunal to again peruse this portion of the record in order to refresh its memory because the record clearly demonstrates what the Chief Justice of the Court had in mind and any person familiar with cross-examination of a witness could never be long in doubt. First he wanted to know exactly how much the witness knew about the things of which he was testifying. That he was satisfied in his own mind the witness knew very little and was only attempting to help himself is amply demonstrated by the observation he made that DOHIMARA and the other persons mentioned were satisfied with things. He was only permitting the witness to further ensuare himself in a. T. 15587.

his own entangled web of half truths and untruths. How the Chief Justice knew that DOHIHARA and the other men mentioned were satisfied with the way things were is now shown, but if the record demonstrates any one thing clearly, it demonstrates that the Chief Justice knew they were satisfied and this fact alone should prove that DOHIHARA had nothing to do with the socalled October Incident, and in addition, he was, as the prosecution posed it, busy at the outposts in China. The prosecution next state that DOHIHARA was appointed Chief of the Special Services Organization of the Kwantung Army ostensibly for the purpose of investigating the case of Captain NAKAMURA but as they blandly put it, his real mission, as disclosed in his interrogation was to investigate and determine the strength of the Chinese forces, their training, their communications and conditions of the civilian popula-(Pros. Sun. PP. BB-3).

They give us their authority for this statement references to the interrogation of DOHIHARA. Again there is no analyzation of the testimony. In the first place DOHIHARA was never the head of the Special Services Organization of the Kwantung Army nor did he, as they accuse him of doing, state what they said he

a. Pros. Sum. PP. BB-3.

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interrogated he was without the benefit of counsel and was required to answer and from the way the interrogations were put to him one receives a compelling impression that they were put by some person whose own opinion of himself far exceeded his actual ability. That person, throughout the interrogation, never failed to take advantage of his position and always insisted on attempting to put into the mouth of DOHI-HARA things he did not say or mean.

practical demonstration of that fact. The question put to him was as to whother he still insisted that his story, that his only mission was to investigate the case of Captain NAKAMURA, was true. There was no evasion whatsoever by DOHIHARA in answering this saide type of questioning. He stated that it was not his only purpose but that it was his most important. In the next question the interogator flatly contradicts him and states he had been told on a previous occasion by General DOHIHARA that such was his only purpose. However, DOHIHARA answered that he thought he had merely told him it was his most important job, but that as head of the Special Services Organization he had other

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duties which he outlined. (T. 15724, 15725). The prosecution's statement that DOHIHARA's primary business in Manchuria at that time was for the purpose of investigating and determining the strength of the Chinese forces, their training, etc., is nothing but an attempt to convince the Tribunal of their manner of thinking, and is contrary to the record and is just another attempt to get the Tribunal to believe that the accused DOHIHARA was attempting to evade questions put to him on his interrogation, a fact which we flatly deny.

To prove that his primary mission was that of investigating the NAKAMURA case, we could quote many portions of the record. However, since the Lytton b.

Report (Ex. 57, p. 63) includes an entire chapter on the NAKAMURA case, because of its importance to the relationship between China and Japan, we ask the Tribunal, if there be any doubt in their minds, to read that chapter. The prosecution's beautiful theory falls of its own weight.

It is apparent that the prosecution know the weakness of their argument as to the purpose of DOHIHARA's appointment as the head of the Special a. T. 15724, 15725. b. Ex. 57, p. 63.

next paragraph of their argument (Pros. Sum. PP. BB-4), they charge DOHIHARA with attempting to foul up the NAKANURA case so that no agreement could be reached. Nothing could be further from the truth, but it demonstrates the attitude of the projecution to studiously attempt to enrich by their own imagination the facts with fiction.

c. Pros. Sun. PP. BB-4.

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This fact is shown in their surmation on this point because again they circumvent the true facts. They state in substance that every effort was being made on the part of the Chinese to meet the wishes of the Japanese with reference to the NAKAMURA Case (Prosecution summation PP BB-3 Par BB-6) that although it was believed by the Japanese Consular authorities that a solution was near, it was DOHIHARA who continued to question the sincerity of the Chinese in an effort to arrive at a satisfactory solution. (Prosecution Surmation PP BB-4 Par BB-6). Well, again, they cannot have read the Record very clearly. The Lytton Commission never did say that the Chinese were doing everything they could to settle the NAKAMURA Case. To use the exact words of the Lytton Report, "...it would seem that diplomatic negotiations for attrining a solution of the NAKAMURA Case were actually progressing favorably up to the night of September 18. (Exhibit 57, p. 65, Par. 3). It appears, from a further study the Lytton Report that if the Chinese were trying to settle the question so were the Japanese because it specifically states that the Japanese Consular authoriti felt that an amicable solution was near. While the

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Pros. Sum PP BB-6 Pros. Sum. PPBB-4 Par BB-6 b. Exhibit 57, p. 65, Par. 3 C.

Report does point out that some officers, especially DOHIHARA, continued to question the sincerity of the Chinese this cannot be construed to mean that these same officers were not attempting to effect a satisfactory solution. In the same paragraph, where that statement appears, we find this statement, "Consul General HAYASHI, Mukden, was reported on September 12th, 13th, to have reported to the Japanese Foreign Office that an amicable solution would probably be made on the return of the investigators to Mukden."

This statement by Consul General HAYASHI was based upon the admission of General Yung-Chen who had finally admitted that Chinese soldiers were responsible or the death of Captain NAKAMURA. (Ex. 57, Lytton Report, P. 65, Par. 3). Without quoting the Record, because the point is not controversial we know that General DOHIHARA was one of the agents referred to and that he had been called to Tokyo to report on the progress of the NAKAMURA Case and on September 18th was on his return to Mukden.

It is interesting to note that in a conference on the 18th of September, the Chinese for the first time formally admitted their responsibility for the death of Captain NAKAMURA. It is true that unofficially a. Ex. 57, Lytton Report, p. 65, Par. 3

General Yung-Cher and stated that the Chinese were responsible, but the e-rliest date given anywhere in the record that even unoficially an admission had been made was on the 12th of September. Be that as it may, it does not change the picture one iota. In view of a correct analyzation of the testimony which we feel we have given and which we invite the Tribunal to test by a study of the record, it does not appear that the Chinese had done one single thing up until that time to indicate their sincerity with reference to a settlement of the case and if the Japanese doubted Chinese sincerity they undoubtedly had a perfect right to do so. (Lytton Report, Ex. 57, P. 65). We again refer the Tribunal to the contention of the prosecution that DOHIHARA's primary mission in China was, at that time, not the NAKAMURA Case and now ask whether that contention is sound.

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The prosecution seems to think it of prime importance that the defense witness SHIBAYAMA thought that Chang-Hauch-Liang was sincere in his efforts to settle the NAKAMURA Case. We can see no importance whatsoever in this fact. SHIBAYAMA was advisor to Chang at the time and it would be only natural that Chang would attempt to convince him that such was so. However, that a. Lytton Report, Ex. 57, p. 65.

does not mean that the Chinese actually were sincere. The prosecution state that ITAGAKI and other staff officers of the Kwantung Army were using the NAKAMURA Case as a pretext to start military actions in Manchuria and cite the Lytton Report. This claim is wrong. What the record actually states is that the Chinese claimed that the Japanese used the NAKAMURA Case as a pretext for the occupation of Manchuria and that they (the Chinese) denied the contention of the Japanese that there was insincerity or delay on the part of the Chinese officials in dealing with the Case: Report, Ex. 57, p. 65, last par.) The Chinese made 13 that statement in spite of the fact that they had 14 already appointed one commission which did nothing 15 and then, because of pressure, appointed a second (Lytton Report, Ex. 57, p. 65, 2nd par.). commission. 17 The mene fact that the Chinese claimed that the Japanese 18 were using this as a pretext does not make it so then 19 or now. Without citing the record we ask the Tribunal 20 to recall to mind the fact that there were over 300 unsettled claims at that time and the I KAMURA Case 22 was but "the straw that broke the camel's bac ." 23 Since the prosecution attach great weight to the 24 Lytton Report, Ex. 57, p. 65, last par. Lytton Report, Ex. 57, 2nd par.

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fact that KOHIHARA is supposed to have made statements in the press advocating the settlement of all pending issues, if necessary by force, and inasmuch as that statement by the prosecution is somewhat substantiated by the Lytton Report (Ex. 57, p. 66), we feel it necessary to discuss it briefly.

Tt must be borne in mind that the Japanese public was highly aroused, not only by the NAKAMURA Case, but the some three hundred other incidents, and the Lytton Commission by no means attempted to lay all the blame on the Japanese, but stated candidly that each side accused the other of having violated, unilaterally interpreted, or ignored the stipulations of the Sino-Japanese agreements. They also recognized that the three hundred so-called cases were situations arising out of broader issues, which were rooted fundamentally in irreconciable policies, and "Each side had legitimate grievances against the other."

(Ex. 57, PP. 66).

The report goes on to relate that there
was effort to settle these questions through normal
procedure of diplomatic negotiations and peaceful
means, and that those means had not been exhausted, but

a. Ex. 57, p. 66 b. Ex. 57, PP. 66

that long delays had put a severe strain on the patience
of the Japanese. (Ex. 57, P.66). In this connection
it is interesting to note that the Lytton Commission
states that DOHIHARA was quoted by the press as the
advocate of the solution of all pending issues and
does not confine his statements to the NAKAMURA Case.
We do not know what the newspaper stories actually
contained, or in what manner they quoted him, but
certainly if he did make such statements to the press,
he was not alone in his belief that the disputes
would have to be settled.

In order to fully appreciate the mental outlook of DOHIHARA at that time it is necessary to consider the then situation in China with reference to local armies, civil war, banditry and the attitude and power of the Central Government. We submit without further comment the following extracts from the Lytton Report.

"Its armed forces are also identified with their commander, not with the nation. The transfer of a commander from one army to another by order of the Central Government is, in many cases impossible. The danger of civil war must continue to exist so long as the Central Government lacks the material means to a. Ex. 57, P. 66

make its authority swiftly and permanently felt all over the country."

"The problem of banditry which may be traced throughout the history of China, and which exists today in all parts of the country, is subject to the same considerations. Banditry has always existed in China and the administration has never been able to suppress it thoroughly." (Ex. 57, p. 19, last six lines of para. 2, and the first 4 lines of para. 3.)

... in addition to the natural desire to be free from any outside control in a people that has become conscious of national unity, the influence of the Kuomintang has introduced into the nationalism of China an additional and abnormal tinge of bitterness against all foreign influences, and has expanded its airs so as to include the liberation of all Asiatic people still subject to 'imperialistic oppressions"." (Ex. 57, p. 18, para. 2) "The reluctance of Chine to receive foreigners and her attitude toward those who were in the country was bound to have serious come consequences ... "the inevitable conflict of two irreconciable conceptions of respective rights and international relations led to wars and disputes ... " (Ex. 57, p. 14, para. 4 & 5) "The recrudesence of civil war favored the growth of Communist influence in

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the period between 1928-3:..." "The Cormunist forces had operated in parts of Kiangsi and Hunan Provinces, and were then reported to have caused in two or three months the loss of 200,000 lives and of property valued at about one billion dollars (silver)." (Ex. 53, p. 21, para. 4). We submit that DOHIHARA's statement, under the circumstances, is one that could reasonably be expected from a military men and the Tribunal can 10 take judicial knowledge of the attitude of present military leaders. 12 The prosecution admit that DOHIHARA was not 13 in Mukden at the time the Mukden Incident broke out 14 but they hint that regardless of the evidence, he still 15 was a responsible party; that even though DOHIHARA 16 himself was not present, his office was the center of 17 invasion operations, and that his office served as an indispensable link in the chain of communications between the outposts and headquarters of the Kwantung 20 army, and was in exclusive possession of a special 21 code by which communications to the Commander-in-Chief were to be made. (Pros. Sum P. BB-5) 23 Part of this contention is true, but the 24 prosecution did not attempt to analyze the testimony Pros. Sun. P. BB-5).

or they undoubtedly would not have made the statement they did. The reason the office of the Special Service organ was used as headquarters for the Kwantung Army that night was purely coincidental. ITAGAKI, on that evening, had been to visit with General TATEKAWA, nd was returning to his billet. As it was too early to retire, he decided to visit the office of the 8 Special Service organ. (T. 30,351-352). 9 was on the point of leaving, he received a telephone 10 call reporting the outbreak of the incident, which 11 prevented him from returning to his billet. He being 12 the responsible officer, it would have made no difference where he had been; that place would have become, for 14 all intents and purposes, the headquarters. 15 that he later approved the plans of SHIMAMOTO and HIRATA while in the office of the Mukden Special organ is of no importance. The assertion that the Special Service organization had a special code by which communication 19 with the Commander-in-Chief was to be made is not borne 20 out by the record. ITAGAKI, as a witness, did state 21 in substance that this Special Service organ had a 22 telegraph or code telegram form, and as not everybody had this form, if there was any need to send a coded military telegram, it was necessary to call this Special T. 30,351-352.

Service Organ. But, in this connection he further states that whenever any negotiations relating to military matters had to be conducted, the important matters were relayed to the Consulate General and only the less important or minor matters were dealt with directly by this Special Service Organ. (T. 30,353). There is absolutely no evidence to connect DOHIHARA in any manner with any scheme to bring about the Mukden Incident and the prosecution know it. Their statement to the effect that MORISHIMA's testimony that DOHIHARA had no connection with the incident merely dispels the assumption that as one of the original schemers DOHIHARA was not likely to have taken part personally in the activities of September 18th, (Pros. Sum. PP. BB-5) is but wishful thinking and has no foundation in the evidence.

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a. T. 30,353 b. Pros. Sum. PP. BB-5.

The remarks of the prosecution concerning DOHIHARA's activities as Mayor of Mukden are hardly worthy of answer. They again refer to the Lytton Report to show that upon him taking over the post of Mayor of Mukden, a Special Emergency Committee was formed, with the majority of the members being Japanese. This we do not deny, but this was necessary because most of the prominent officials and leading members of educational and commercial communities who could afford to do so left immediately. The police and even the prison wardens disappeared, and municipal, district and provincial administrations completely broke down; public utility companies, the busses, the tramways, the telephones, and telegraph services ceased to function; banks and shops kept their doors closed, (Ex. 57, p. 88). Had DOHIHARA wanted Chinese to assist him, he would have hardly been able to obtain them. However, within three days, DOHIHARA, by his administration of the city, had it functioning normally; civil administration was restored; several hundred police and most of the prison wardens were brought back and public services were restored.

The prosecution has consistently asserted that the Chinese people despised and hated DOHIHARA, yet here (a. Ex. 57, p. 88.)

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we have the uncontroverted proof that persons, who had fled apparent danger, returned within three days. It can only be assumed that those who fled did so because of the Japanese. By no stretch of the imagination can it possibly be believed that those persons would return from comparative safety, which they must have reached, unless they had faith in the person who took over the administration of their city. The thing the prosecution fails to mention is that the Lytton Commission states as a positive fact that "on October 20th, the reins of the 10 municipal government were restored to a qualified Chinese body. . . " Although the prosecution states 12 that the assumption of the mayoralty of Mukden by DOHIHARA is significant because it was the first time an officer in the Japanese service took over the admini-15 stration of a city in China, to have failed to do so would have been far more significant. "The immediate necessity was the organization of a municipal government 18 and the restoration of the ordinary civic life of the It was not a question of significance or anycity." 21 thing of the kind. It was a question of absolute necessity.

Why then was DOHIHARA selected? The reasons should be and are obvious; no person would have dared

(a. Fx. 57, p. 88.) b. Ex. 57, p. 88.)

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undertake the reorganization of the completely disrupted city of Mukden, with any hope of success, unless that person was known and liked by the citizens. In addition to this vital qualification which would, of necessity, have to be present in a person undertaking that responsibility, it also required a person who had deep knowledge of the manners, customs and language of the Chinese.

Under the circumstances it was only natural that DOHIHARA would be chosen as the most likely person to succeed in a reasonably short period of time.

That he was able to do so is amply shown and the record is a testimonial to his success.

THE PRESIDENT: We will recess for fifteen minutes.

(Whereupon, at 1445, a recess was taken until 1500, after which the proceedings were resumed as follows:)

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The witness KATAKURA, Tadashi state in substance that Colonel DOHIHARA was appointed the Mayor of the city temporarily on the condition he would serve until a competent person could fill that position. The accused MINAMI, upon being cross-evamined by the prosecution relative to the fact that DOHIHARA was appointed the Mayor of Mukden contrary to his orders, stated in substance that although the Cabinet had decided no military administration was to be established and that such decision was communicated to Commander HONJO of the Kwantung Army, he did not believe that the appointment of DOHIHARA as Mayor of Mukden was a violation of the order. On the contrary, in light of the situation and because of the acute state of disorder prevailing in that major city, it was, as a matter of fact, unavoidable.

In reviewing the testimony of both General MINAMI and the witness KATAKURA there is no question but that the appointment of DOHIHARA as Mayor of Mukden was for a short period of time and was not intended as the establishment of a military regime. As a matter of fact, the testimony throughout reflects that DOHIHARA had no military assistance whatsoever.

We again assert that it is preposterous to

a. T. 18,926-18,927

a. T. 19 879-80

believe that any person could reach the conclusion that the Chinese, police officers and prison warders included, would flee from the wrath of the Japanese and reach comparative safety, and then return in a period of three days to the very seat of the recently fled danger unless they had implicit and absolute confidence in the man the enemy had selected to restore order and peace. This fact standing alone should be sufficient to convince any court of justice beyond a reasonable doubt that DOHIHARA was not universally hated and distrusted by the Chinese people as the prosecution would have you believe. That the members of the Lytton Commission did not believe this to be true is reflected in their high praise of his activities. That Lord Lytton personally had great respect and admiration for General DOHIHARA can hardly be denied. In the interview of record which he and members of the Commission had on May 3, 1932 in Changchun, Lord Lytton stated:

understand the General took over the civil administration at Mukden immediately after the events of September 18. Would be please describe conditions at that time, state what steps be took, etc. ...?"

a. Tx. 3180, Ex. 3180-A, P. 2; T. 28,667-28,669.

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At that point General DOHIHARA explained what had been done and his contribution thereto and as soon as he had completed his response to the question posed by Lord Lytton, Lord Lytton then continued:

"I expect the General is much too modest in regard to his activities, for I understand that at the end of a month everything was brought back to peaceful conditions and he felt he could then hand matters over to some one else."

In reading the Lytton Report and other documents pertaining thereto, one does not receive the impression that Lord Lytton was given to flattery for the sake of flattery alone. On the contrary, it would appear that he was a sincere man, honest in his endeavor to carry out the high commission which had been foisted upon him and did not need to use flattery to assist him to that end. Even if it were possible to arrive at the conclusion that his words were idle, there are other facts which we can now view in retrospect and which are startling in their implications as to the feeling held by the Commission towards DOHIHARA. Commission, in its report, with reference to statements made by General DOHIHARA, would almost without excep-

b. Fx. 3180, Fx. 3180-A, p. 4.

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tion either adopt his views or give them great consideration. For instance, with reference to the NAKAMURA incident, the Report states:

"Numerous statements of Japanese military officers, however, especially those of Colonel K. DOFIFARA continued to question the sincerity of the Chinese ..."

Later the Commission set out certain conb clusions which it had reached, and one of them was:

"As a corollary to the above, it is necessary that provision should be made for facilitating the prompt settlement of minor disputes as they arise."

Inquestionably in this instance the commission recognized the sincerity of his feeling in believing that the Chinese were not sincere and there seems to be every reason to suspect that General DOHIHARA's opinion concerning the Chinese attitude at that time was absolutely correct.

Throughout the entire Lytton Commission Report there is no derogatory remark made concerning DOHIHARA. On the contrary, the Commission appears to have gone further than was necessary in specifically mentioning his activities in a feverable light. The fact that he was mentioned on more than one occasion only tends to

a. Lytton Report, Fx. 57, p. 65. b. Lytton Peport Fx. 57, p. 130

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show that great weight was given his opinion. As can be seen by reading the whole of the Report, the Commission bears out, by the recitation of facts and in very favorable terms, the testimony of defense witnesses that whenever General DOHIHARA's troops entered an area, business continued as usual and that the Chinese people trusted and cooperated with him to the fullest extent.

The prosecution, as was expected, has attempted to show that General DOHIHARA instigated, initiated, and carried through a plan for the kidnapping of Henry Pu-Yi, and rely almost entirely on a series of telegrams originating with one KUVAJIMA, Kazue. Although KUVAJIMA was available to the prosecution and resided in the city of Tokyo, they did not produce him before the Tribunal for reasons which will become more obvious as we proceed with our summetion.

However, we should like at this time to recall to the mind of the Tribunal that there came a time in the presentation of the defense case when, because of mechanical difficulties, we were forced to request a continuence in order to avoid a breakdown which was then imminent. Mention is made of this fact because we wish to remind the Tribunal that, as the trial a. T. 28,680; 28,694; 28,707

progressed the Tribunal realized that if it continued to accept evidence of certain types the trial could drag on for years. As the Tribunal knows, the defense had processed, or were processing, evidence of the type which the Court had in mind, among which were numerous newspaper and periodical reports. We had spent considerable time and effort and did discard, in deference to the wishes of the Tribunal, practically all of our evidence of that type. We assumed then, and now assume, that the Tribunal was not interested in newspaper reports as evidence. But since much evidence, based on newspaper reports, rumor, and hearsay was introduced by the prosecution and still remains in evidence, we feel it necessary to discuss them and point out what we consider to be fatal defects. "hen this has been done we ask the Court to completely disregard them as having no evidentiary and certainly no probative value.

As the Tribunal will recall, on the 28th of August 1946, a number of telegrams were introduced by the prosecution dealing with the accused DOHIHARA and his alleged kidnapping of the Emperor Pu-Yi himself. In passing, it is noteworthy that the prosecution, although Pu-Yi was their witness, failed utterly to mention his testimony in regard to the activities of

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DOHIHARA with reference to his alleged abduction. The truth is, of course, they did not dere to do so because his testimony causes their carefully planned house of cards to tumble to the ground.

the testimony of Pu-Yi, and having been able to evaluate and observe his actions and demeanor on the witness stand, that any person could draw a conclusion from the evidence that he was kidnapped, or for that matter, that undue persuasion was used upon him. However, we cannot assume that the Tribunal will accept our viewpoint and consequently we have no choice except to analyze his testimony on that score.

No person should know better whether the accused DOHIHARA kidnapped him than the person who was supposed to have been kidnapped. While this counsel has no confidence in the truth or veracity of Pu-Yi, he was nonetheless a witness for the prosecution and they are bound by his testimony. But regardless of our candidly expressed opinion of his testimony, there could be no reason whatsoever for him to tell an untruth concerning the activities of DOHIHARA; yet in his testimony he mentions DOHIHARA only a few times. Despite the fact that the telegrams just mentioned repeatedly referred to DOHIHARA as having conversa-

tions with Pu-Yi and attempting to kidnap him, such conversation, if there was more than one, apparently did not register with Pu-Yi. We have already discussed the activities of DOHIHARA while he was the Mayor of Mukden and therefore know that he could not have spent any considerable time in Tientsin even had he wanted to, because the very physical nature of the job he was required to do in Mukden precluded any such possibility. To have carried out all the manifold operations which the prosecution has attempted to prove he engineered . during the time he was Mayor of Mukden would have been impossible and even the prosecution does not claim that he is "Superman"! That DOHIHARA went to Tientsin and talked with Pu-Yi we do not deny. However, so little did Pu-Yi think of DOHIHARA's visit to him that he never mentioned it in his testimony although he was given ample opportunity to do so if he had remembered it. Pu-Yi was asked this direct question concerning the period of time DOHIHARA was in Tientsin and specifically around the time when the September 18 Incident broke out:

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"Q Did you receive a visit from any prominent official about that time?

"A That time the Japanese Commander of the Japanese garrison forces in Tientsin, by the name of

KASHII, came to see me."

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Pu-Yi then relates the conversation he had with KASHII, and when later asked by the prosecution whether he went to Port Arthur, and what happened, he stated that he went under the compulsion of General KASHII, that he was compelled by KASHII to go to Port Arthur.

DOHIHARA, in his interrogation, which is in evidence, admits that he did have a meeting with Henry Pu-Yi in Tientsin in October 1931 when he was the Mayor of Mukden. He states that he went there for the specific purpose of contacting Pu-Vi; that he was sent by the Kwantung Army under orders; that General HONJO was the Commander of the Kwantung Army and that General ITAGAKI, then Colonel ITAGAKI, was Chief of the Second Section of the General Staff; that his orders to proceed to Tientsin were issued by General HONJO, but the detail of his meeting with Pu-Yi was arranged by Colonel ITAGAKI, and that, in substance, his instruction was to convey to Pu-Vi that should he, Pu-Yi, return to ! anchuria the Kwantung Army would welcome his return. Then asked if he was to suggest to Pu-Yi that the reason the Kwantung Army would welcome him back

a. Tr. p. 3955 b. Tr. 3956

was because they would like to have him head the new government, DOHIFARA stated that he believed the Kwantung Army must have had that idea; however, he himself had no such idea. He admitted that perhaps Pu-Yi, upon receipt of the message, which he was ordered to deliver, might conceive that idea. He also stated that the plan was not his but that upon receipt of instructions from the Kwantung Army he felt perhaps such things would be required to settle the Manchoukuon turmoil. As for himself, he thought more about the many factions competing against each other and other disturbances than he did of what the Chief of the Second Section, that is, ITAGAKI, had told him at that time. He also stated that he was warned not to force Pu-Yi to return to Manchoukuo, that if Pu-Vi wanted to come that would be fine, but that he was definitely told it would not be necessary to bring him back forcibly, because, although he did not know, perhaps the Chief of the Second Section might have had some other idea to control the situation in Fanchuria, even though Pu-Yi did not return. The analyzation of the interrogations taken from the accused DOHIHARA and introduced in evidence by the prosecution is interesting.

It reflects the feeling the prosecution had

a. Tr. p. 15,726, 15,727, 15,728

when they were given a free reign to question the accused without benefit of counsel. They felt then, and unquestionably feel now, that DOHIHARA never kid-napped Pu-Yi and never went on any such mission. How do we know this? The prosecution would have questioned him on that score and brought his answer and laid it before the Tribunal. This they did not do, and this one single act of omission stands as an indictment of their sincerity.

In cross-examination Pu-Yi does specifically mention the accused DOHIHARA. He states that he received a fruit basket in which there was a bomb bearing a Chinese name card, and that "There was reason for the inference that the fruit basket incident was instigated by DOHIHARA." He goes on to say, "Of course what I heard can be only considered as hearsay." So we have this strange paradox in the prosecution argument: DOFIHARA was sent to Tientsin for the purpose of conveying a message urging the return of Pu-Vi to Manchuria to act as Emperor and to kidnap him if necessary, and Pu-Yi not even remembering the incident sufficiently to give testimony on it but asserting, on the contrary, that it was his belief that DOHIHARA attempted to assassinate him by sending him a bomb in a a. Tr. p. 4124

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basket of fruit. "hat are we going to believe; did DOHIHARA go to Tientsin for the purpose of kidnapping Pu-Yi or for the purpose of killing him? To assert that a fruit basket was sent to Pu-vi for the purpose of frightening Pu-Yi into doing what Pu-Yi already wanted to do, in the face of the testimony before this Tribunal and in the face of Pu-Yi's testimony, is utterly ridiculous. However, it is interesting to note that none of the testimony on the part of the prosecution or the defense either directly or by inference ever connected the accused DOHIHARA with Pu-Vi after the alleged kidnapping. As a matter of fact, Pu-vi states that all of his dealings after this alleged kidnapping by General KASHII, was with the then Colonel ITAGAKI. It is further interesting to note that, in his examination concerning his trip from Tientsin to Port Arthur, Pu-Yi never one single time mentioned the name of DOHIHARA, although other prosecution evidence does. However, this question is moot, because the prosecution admits in their argument that DOKIHARA did not accompany Pu-vi. At this time we will return to the discussion of the telegrams previously mentioned. The true type

of evidence they actually portray will be revealed

a. Pros. summation BB-20.

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upon analyzation of the text of the telegrams themselves.

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The first that we will discuss is exhibit b 300. The prosecution base much of their argument on this telegram and quote portions of it, but not all of it. Part of that which they do quote is wrong.

The original translation of the telegram, as introduced, was changed by the Language Arbitration Board when the prosecution attempted to impeach the witness KUWAJIMA upon it.

As will be pointed out, the witness stated in his affidavit that he had talked with DOHIHARA on two occasions, whereas the telegram as originally translated stated that he had deliberately talked with him on several occasions. The word "several" was changed to the word "two," and although the prosecution in their argument adopted all changes except one by the Language Arbitration Board, that one which they did not adopt was the changing of the word "several." The failure to make this one change would of course lead one to believe that their attempted impeachment of the witness was successful and unless the reference just cited was brought to the attention of the Tribunal, a wholly erroneous idea could be obtained. Thy the

b. Tr. 4395-6 c. Pros. sum. p. BB-12 prosecution failed to substitute this one word we do not know, but assume that it was an error. However, it does have a direct bearing upon the prosecution's argument with reference to the testimony of KUTAJIMA.

The prosecution have assumed the position that the telegram contains a recitation of facts because there appears in the telegram a statement to the effect that a secret investigation revealed certain things. This cannot be accepted, because the witness KUTAJI'A, who sent the telegram, stated in his affidavit that in order to understand the then existing situation, it was necessary to realize that there was friction between the Foreign Office and the Kwantung army and that the army was acting independently of the Foreign Ministry and consequently he, KUWAJIMA, received no official information from the army as to the activities of any of its members and had no means by which he could do so. He further stated that he was far too busy to conduct any personal investigation of the actions of DOHIHARA and had to depend upon his subordinates to collect whatever information they could get and from whatever sources available. The witness then outlined the sources of such information as newspaper articles, conversations held with various people, rumors, and, in short, any information which might tend to

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throw light upon the activities, in this instance, of DOFIHARA. After having received this information from all the questionable sources named, he then stated that he sifted the information and drew his own conclusions.

davit that the telegram in question was one of those which had been compiled from information so obtained. The conclusion of the prosecution that KUVAJIMA's testimony was totally incredible because he had personally sifted information from whatever sources and drawn his own conclusions, is in itself an incredible conclusion on the part of the prosecution, because the witness also stated that the sources of information which he outlined were the only sources he had and that with the great mass of information it was impossible for him to check the authenticity of such sources; that he had to do the best he could under the circumstances as he had no other personal information.

Although, as previously pointed out, the prosecution quotes at length from the telegram in question, it is noteworthy that they utterly failed to even mention, much less quote, the portion of the telegram a. Tr. 28,649, 28,650 a. Pros. sum. p. BB-14 b. Tr. 300, tr. 28Hq b. Tr. 28,650

which substantiates the testimony of KUTAJIMA and so we shall quote it:

"As in the last paragraph of my telegram

No. 743 to Bureau Chief TANI, the Chinese have been concerned about DOHIHARA's intrigue since his arrival in Tientsin. It may be for this reason that I believe the recent riot is closely connected with him. I conclude that his movements hereafter require close attention."

There you have it in a nutshell. KUVAJIMA himself did not know at that time why he believed those things about DOHIHARA which he wrote in the telegram, but he thought maybe he believed them simply because the Chinese were perturbed. With this statement in the telegram and with the testimony of KUWAJIMA it can be readily seen that no court would accept the telegram as evidence unless it be a court with extraordinary powers, and certainly it should not be worthy of consideration in a case of this magnitude.

The prosecution cannot be serious in their contention that KUWAJIMA was telling an untruth about the source of the information which comprised the telegrams which he sent because they had a witness MORISHIMA.

e. Ex. 300, tr. 4394-7

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Norito, who was the First Assistant to the Consul
General and who stated in substance "that in order to
effectively perform the duties and functions of the
Consulate General's Office, they had to avail themselves of all accessible channels of information":
and he specifically states that it was the duty and
responsibility of their office to draw conclusions
from information so obtained and to advise the Japanese
Government.

b. Tr. 3011

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The testimony of MORISHIMA was given with reference to similar telegrams of the type mentioned by KUWAJIWA. MORISHIMA was Assistant Consul General and Acting Consul General from December 1031 to December 1932 at Mukden. It is true that he does state in his affidavit that among the sources of information available to him was the Consular Police. We wish to discuss this and, in connection with the discussion, refer the Tribunal back to the so-called secret investigation which exhibit 300 mentions. It can be assumed that, if the Consul General conducted an investigation, he would do so through the Consular Police. For this reason it is important to find out exactly how much faith could be placed in the reports of the Consular Police. During the cross-examination, the President of the Tribunal asked the witness KUVAJIMA a question as to whether the Consular Police were trustworthy men, and the witness answered in substance that the Consular Police brought much information to his office daily and it was not to be trusted to the extent that it could be used immediately for reporting purposes, and so, obviously, no credit can be placed in this so-called secret investigation. So much for prosecution exhibit 300. "e will now return to the prosecution summation where

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a. T. 28,655

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the other telegrams in the series were introduced and will analyze them in the same order as they appear in the summation.

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The first telegram in the series which the prosecution cite is exhibit 288 and refers to the alleged vidnapping of Pu-Yi by DOHIHARA. Since we have already covered the general argument with reference to this situation fully, we will merely point out that the telegram contains nothing except a condensation of a published report of a telegram printed in a newspaper. The exhibit itself starts with the words, "The Chinese Newsparer of the 2nd inst. published a telegram . . . " Further on in the body of the telegram we also find these words, "The Newsparer said . . . " We submit, in view of the origin of the information contained in this telegram, that it has no probative value whatsoever. The prosecution attempted to prove by the telegram that DOHIHARA went to Tientsin on a secret mission, pointing out that Pu-Vi testified he was annoved by a series of threats and that Goette testified that DOHIHARA was in North China at the time a fruit basket containing a bomb was sent to the home of Pu-vi. This evidence is so weak it does not even dignify a further analyzation. The next telegram which they cite is exhibit

a. T. 3729-3730.

The prosecution attempt to show by this telegram 286. that KUWAJIMA, Consul General in Tientsin, had previously told DOHIHARA that the creation of an independent state of Manchuria was contrary to certain provisions of the Nine-Power Treaty.b This telegram does not indicate anything of the sort and is a telegram from Foreign Minister SHIDEHARA to Consul General KUWAJIMA at Tientsin in which SHIDEHARA outlines the position of the Foreign Office and does not even mention DOHIHARA's It merely reiterates what we already know and that is that there was friction between the Foreign Office and the Army with reference to the establishment of the State of Manchukuo. In the telegram SHIDEHARA cautions KUWAJIMA as follows: "Such being the case, I ask you to keep the above well in mind and do your utmost to stop the abduction of Emperor Hsuan-Ung on one hand, and on the other hand, earnestly propose to the Emperor in a suitable way to be prudent, and I also ask you to be on guard."d This paragraph is significant. If the Foreign Office actually believed that Pu-Vi was to be kidnapped, why then should KUVAJIMA be enjoined to earnestly propose to the Emperor to be

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a. T. 4356-8

b. Pros. Sum. F. BB-11

c. T. 4355

d. ". 4368

prudent? It is so significant that we ask the Tribunal to pay particular attention to the fact that KUWAJIMA was specifically enjoined to speak with the Emperor Pu-Yi

The next telegram is exhibit 289. refers to the preceding telegram and in it the Consul General at Tientsin is reporting to the Foreign Minister in Tokyo that he had attempted to persuade DOHIHARA to their way of thinking but that DOHIHARA insisted on several points, which we do not consider important and therefore will not discuss at this time. However, there are some portions of the exhibit which we should like to call to the attention of the Tribunal concerning conclusions which, according to the Consul General. DOHIHARA had in mind. One of them concerned the Emperor's apparent resolve to go to Manchuria at the risk of his life. This is significant because it indicates that nobody was about to kidnap Pu-Yi. Further on in the telegram, the fact is recited that the Consul General advised DOHIHARA that the army had better' give up its plan at least for the time being. Consul General then proceeds to state that DOHIHARA did not accept his advice but expressed himself to the effect that it should be clarified by sounding the Emperor's mind, that if he (the Emperor had no intention

a. T. 4365

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to run the risk, then he (DOHIHARA) would leave with a parting remark that there would be no such opportunity in the future for the Emperor, and would dispatch a telegram to the military authorities at Mukden to the effect that he would consider an alternative measure, as the present plan was hopeless of success. This can only mean one thing and that is that neither DOHIHARA nor anyone else in the army had any idea of kidnapping Pu-Yi; that the matter was in the hands of Pu-Yi himself. This telegram bears out the overall testimony and is not in the least inconsistent with the testimony of Pu-Vi in regard to DOHIHARA.

This telegram is supposed to refer to the conversation DOHIHARA held with the staff of the Consulate. In reading this telegram an entirely different light can be placed upon its meaning than that advanced by the prosecution. In their argument they state that DOHIHARA pointed out to the staff of the Consulate that the state of affairs in Manchuria was brought about solely by the activities of the Chinese authorities and in case the enthronement of the Emperor became indispensable in order to save the situation, it would be outrageous for the Japanese Government to take action to prevent it.

a. Pros. Sum. P. BB-11.

The telegram states that the Manchurian state of affairs was brought to the present condition solely by the activities of the military authorities there and it does not mention Chinese military authorities at all. It goes on further to state that it would be outrageous for the present government to take the attitude of preventing it. Whether DOHIHARA was talking about Chinese troops and the Japanese Government is not made clear. He does print out that the situation was tense with the Kwantung Army and we also find this statement contained in the telegram: ". . . In Japan proper too besides the assassination plotters who are now under confinement, some graver accident may occur he feared."

This telegram again shows that DOHIHARA was advising of the delicate situation and giving his opinion as to what he feared might happen. In a previous telegram of the series, as we have pointed out, he already had stated that unless the Emperor voluntarily came out and took the risk involved that he would advise the Ewantung Army to the effect it was hopeless to attempt to bring him out.

And again in this telegram, if it can be believed at zll, DOHIHARA predicated his actions on the choice of Emperor Pu-Yi because we find these words:

a. T. 4367-8

"If the Emperor should decide to come out, he must be brought out even if it depends on political expediency as a means." Most of the rest of the telegram is merely the opinion of the sender based obviously upon hearsay and surmise. At the end of the telegram, the Consul General tells the Foreign Office that with further regard to the Emperor (Pu-Yi), he had repeatedly, through Pu-Yi's attendants, given his advice to act with great prudence and requested instructions from the Foreign Office as to the degree to which he could speak to the Emperor about the matter. This again shows that nobody was about to kidnap Pu-Vi.

view which DOHIHARA had with Pu-Yi. This is exhibit 291. The information in this telegram is obtained from two places, one from a secret conversation with an unidentified person named Chiang Chui and another is from the "star," obviously a newspaper and consequently can have very little, if any, probative value. However, it is interesting to note that if DOHIHARA did talk to the Emperor on this occasion, and we do not deny he did talk with him on one occasion, the Emperor was in a very pleasant frame of mind about the whole thing because the

a. T. 4368 b. T. 4373

telegram states in part, ". . . When former Emperor was told restoration is welcomed by Japanese Imperial Household, he seemed greatly willing, and expressed his desire to know to what extent Japanese Government intends to assist and also expressed his wishes to know details of method of escape from here." This telegram, if it proves anything, proves only that Pu-Yi was not the subject of an abduction plot.

The next telegram is exhibit 292. Fince the Tribunal did not consider newspaper reports as evidence in behalf of the accused except under certain special conditions, we shall not discuss this telegram except to state that it is a condensation of a news story reported in the "I-thih-Pao," a Chinese newspaper.

The next telegram is exhibit 300, on which we have already commented at great length, and the next one is exhibit 294, a telegram in the same series giving as the source for its information what the sender could gather from the captain of a ship known as the "Awaji Maru." Briefly, this deals with DOHIHARA's supposedly guiding the former Emperor on his trip from Tientsin. Since the prosecution themselves admit that DOHIHARA did not accompany him on this trip it is hardly worth

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T. 4374 T. 4375 a.

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Pros. Sum. P. DD-20

discussion. The whole telegram is based on hearsay and there are several places in the telegram that disclose the source of the information, such as the words, "... is said to be engaged in plans," and "he is said to have been." Obviously the sender was not certain of his information.

The next telegram cited by the prosecution is exhibit 297^b and concerns the Emperor Pu-Yi after he left Tientsin and since it is admitted by the prosecution that DOHIHARA had nothing to do with him at that time there is no point in discussing it; and the next telegram, exhibit 298^c is in the same category, and the same applies to exhibit 302^d.

These are the only telegrams of any importance dealing directly with the activities of DOHIHARA which were cited by the prosecution. They do make reference to telegrams concerning other people which have little, if any, bearing on DOHIHARA, and therefore they do not need any further consideration at this time.

The prosecution next proceed to what they term DOHIHARA's undercover activities in the Tientsin area. However, almost without exception they depend on the

a. T. 4379 - 4380

b. T. 4387-4388

c. T. 4390

d. T. 4400

e. Pros. tum. P. BB-16.

series of telegram, most of which we have analyzed, and others probably which they did not cite. Most of the telegrams are nothing but newspaper reports and evidence of similar character which throw little, if any, light upon the alleged activities of DOHIHARA. The prosecution assume that all the incidents in Tientsin were engineered by DOHIHAMA, but their own testimony contradicts any such theory, especially with the so-called terrorists' acts towards Pu-Yi. There is reason to believe that mich of the trouble was instigated by the headquarters of the 1ron Blood Group, a Chinese communist party The prosecution introduced into evidence a telegram, which will bear out this belief. It states, in substance, that several letters of threat had been received by Fu-vi from the headquarters of the Iron Blood Group - a branch of the Chinese Communist Party - and other anonymous persons. b It appears significant that although the prosecution introduced that telegram they did not refer to it in their argument. We do not believe that further discussion on this phase is warranted or would be of benefit to the Tribunal and we pass on to the next subject. The presecution have a sub-title which they designate as ""DOHIHARA's Control of Opium Traffic."

b. T. 4385

a. Ex. 295, T. 4384 b. Pros, sum. p. BB-23

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Without going into details, the Tribunal will recall that the prosecution has laid stress on the fact that others were in control of the opium traffic and consequently the defense was rather surprised that, in addition to all the other things which the prosecution claims DOHIHARA was responsible for, they should also include the opium traffic. However, the only period of time that DOHIHARA could possibly have had anything to do with the opium traffic was between the 18th of September 1931 and the 20th of October of the same year. That was the period of time when he was Mayor of the City of Mukden, and the only evidence contained in the Record is that referred to by the prosecution having to do with a telegram sent by Consul General HAYASHI to Foreign Minister SHIDEHARA in which HAYASHI states that according to reliable sources the municipal administration office planned the mobilization of opium. This telegram was sent on October 13 which was seven days before DOHIRARA was relieved as the Mayor of Mukden on the 20th of October. At the same time this telegram was sent, or at least shortly thereafter, the prosecution cite evidence which shows that DOHIHARA was not in Mukden but that he was in Tientsin trying to abduct Pu-Yi

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Pros. tum. p. BB-24

c. Ex. 57, p. 88

T. 37,340

Pros. Fum. BB-9, Tr. 15,726

and they also admit that he remained there until the end of November. Consequently, DOHIHARA could have had nothing to do with opium control. Even taking the prosecution's viewpoint, which is entirely erroneous and not consistent with the evidence, the best conclusion that could be drawn is that the control of opium was in a planning period and there were actually no operations at that time. To state that DOHIHARA controlled the opium traffic is entirely unwarranted by the evidence. Actually, the plans, if any there were, were but the materialization of a part of the plans of the army which plans were marked secret No. 781 as of October 2 of that year. At other places in the summation, we have discussed at length the "reliable sources" which consul generals were sending to the Foreign Office. Actually such so-called "reliable sources" were the most unreliable that could be conceived of under the circumstances. The prosecution's assertion that MINAMI's testimony that DOHIHARA had nothing to do with the problems such as opium and was only an attempt to whitewash DOHIHARA is uncalled for and is not justified by the Record. Their reference to the fact that MINAMI testified that one of the reasons

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a. Pros. 5um. p. BB-20

^{7. 37,340} Pros. Sum. p. BB-24

for abolishing the Special Service Department might have been because it was running the opium traffic for its own personal benefit has absolutely no relation to DOHIHARA. That incident occurred, as will be shown by our further summation, more than two years later at a time when DOHIHARA was not connected with Special Services.

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Since the prosecution, as we have already stated, surprised the defense by attempting to accuse DOHIHARA of having controlled the opium traffic, we have no choice except to thoroughly analyze the testimony in addition to answering the prosecution's argument. As we have pointed out, and this date is not contested, DOHIHARA first appears on the scene, insofar as this case is concerned, as the Head of the Special Services Organization in Mukden on or about August 15, 1931. During that period of time opium control is out of the picture although the testimony of the star witness for the prosecution, one General TANAKA, would seem to indicate that it was not. However, we shall not quote from his testimony at this time because it is sufficient to state that his recollection of dates and events is not infallible and that he did make mistakes. We shall later

a. Pros. sum. p. BB-24 b. Ex. 57, p. 88 summarize those portions of his testimony which we feel may be relevant to the issues. Because of TANAKA's testimony, the dates that DOHIHARA held various positions becomes of great significance with reference to the opium question. Some of these dates are not contested by the prosecution. However, we consider it necessary to bring all the dates in question to the attention of the Tribunal in order that a full and clear mental picture of the entire situation may be formed.

The prosecution introduced a small part of the interrogation which they took from DOHIHARA at the time they were preparing their case, and have attempted to show inconsistencies in it, apparently becaus at the outset he did state that the first time he went to Manchuria was August 15, 1931. This particular portion of the interrogation was taken on 11 January 1946 and at a later time, in February 1946, additional interrogations were taken, at which time DOHIHARA was reminded that he had said that the first time he went to Manchuria was on August 15, 1931. DOHIHARA admitted frankly that he had said so but stated that actually he was mistaken as to the date, the actual date being August 18, 1931. He also stated that he had been in Manchuria once in 1911 and once in 1929. Why the prosecution settled a. T.15,713. b. T.15,721. c. T.15,721

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on such understandable inconsistencies when those inconsistencies could have no possible bearing upon the 2 guilt or innocence of the accused is quite beyond the comprehension of defense counsel. However, it does demonstrate the extreme lengths the prosecution has been forced to in an attempt to prove their case. Common sense dictates that the only date we are actually concerned with is when did DOHIHARA go to Manchuria in 1931. 's to whether it was the 15th or the 18th of September is of slight consequence, but in the event importance be attached to that a perusal of the Record containing DOHIHARA's interrogations will show that the error, later corrected, was a natural one. order appointing DOHIHARA as the head of the organization was August 15 but he did not actually arrive there until August 18, hence the discrepancy. According to the testimony of TANAKA, DOHIHARA was placed in charge of the Special Services Organization and remained the head of that organization down to the time when the control of opium was transferred. This statement is absord on its face and we know it is not true because even the prosecution do not contest the fact that DOHIHARA was relieved of the job when he took over as a. T. Mon. 20 Jan. 47; Tues. 21 Jan. 47

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Mayor of Mukden. There is no contest on the fact that DOHIHARA had been in Tokyo and was on his return to Mukden at the time the Mukden Incident occurred and upon his arrival was immediately made the Mayor of that city. This occurred immediately after September 18, 1931. DOHIHARA did not again head the Special Services Organization in Mukden until July 1934. However, by that time the control of opium had been removed from the Special Services Organization and was under a specially created board. We shall now proceed to the discussion of the setting up of that board and to a further analyzation of the evidence which will prove conclusively that General DOHIHARA never had anything to do with opium control.

a. T. 15,714, Ex. 57, p. 88

We have already made reference to the testimony of the witness TANAKA concerning DOHIHARA's connection with opium, but it is necessary to further analyze his testimony in connection with other and better informed witnesses. As the Tribunal will recall, the witness TANAKA testified on so many subjects that he might well be termed a self-styled walking encyclopedia on contemporary Japanese history. This remark is made in order to recall to the court's attention the literally hundreds of instances he testified to from Lemory alone. With reference to DOHI-HARA, he stated, in substance, that DOHIHARA was the head of the Special Services Organization in Mukden when the Manchurian Incident broke out but that for a short time, someone he did not remember occupied the position, and then again DOH IHARA became the head of that organization and continued right down to the time when the control of the opium traffic was transferred. This statement was made on direct examination at which time he also stated that General DOHIHARA was the head of the Special Services Organization in Southern manchuria. Reference is made to this last statement of the witness TANAKA because of the fact that it had been made to appear that the Special Services Organa. T. 15,857

ization in mukden was a wide-flung organization with a great deal of power over large sections of Manchuria. This we know was not true. On cross-examination we elicited from the witness the fact that he was in error. We first reminded the witness of his testimony, given the previous day, concerning the fact he had stated that DOHIHARA was the head of the Special Services Organization in Manchuria at the time of the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident and asked him if he desired to change his statement. Upon objection from the prosecution that we were misquoting the Record, we then read the Record word for word. There could be no possibility of a misunderstanding upon the part of the witness. And when we again asked him if he desired to change his answer, the witness replied, am ready to change it." The witness then went ahead to explain that inasmuch as the Chiefs of the military Services Departments were in charge of small local areas he had said that the accused DOHIHARA was in charge of the Special Services Department in Southern Manchuria or mukden.

The prosecution apparently relied upon the witness TANAKA to tie DOHIHARA into the opium question by the testimony just referred to. However, by the a. T. 15,921

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witness' own testimony the position which DOHIHARA held, if he held it, even at the time the witness said he did, would preclude him from being in control of opium in manchuria. At best his jurisdiction was, according to the witness, a small local area. To be perfectly fair with TANAKA, he stated, in substance, that if his recollection was not mistaken, General DOHIHARA was the Chief of the Special Services Department at the time of the outbreak of the manchurian Incident and after that he once returned to Japan and then went back to manchuria in December; as near as the witness could recall -- December 1934 -- as Chief of the Special Services Department. He further stated that if there was any mistake in his memory he should a

Further questioning of the witness elicited the fact that he thought that the Opium Control Board was put into effect on January 11, 1933 but that the actual completion of the Opium Control Board took place in April 1935. It is patent the witness was relyi 3 on his memory entirely and could equally be mistaken, which fact he admits. He once stated: "I think I am right."

a. T. 15,923 b. T. 15,927

THE PRESIDENT: We will adjourn until nine-thirty tomorrow morning. (Whereupon, at 1600, an adjourn-ment was taken until Tuesday, 16 March, 1948, at 0930.)